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IN EDUCATION

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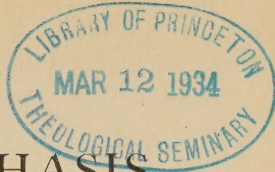
THE CHARACTER EMPHASIS IN EDUCATION

A COLLECTION OF MATERIALS
AND METHODS

KENNETH L. HEATON, PH.D.



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PREFACE

The past few years have seen a great interest among public-school teachers and administrators in the development of character. This emphasis in education has been expressed in many attempts to modify the program of classes, of schools, and of entire school systems in order that these might make a greater contribution to the growing child or youth. Some of these modifications seem good, others not so worth while. The chapters of this volume are written in the effort to bring together examples of some of the better methods and materials that have been used in elementary and secondary schools. The volume is written particularly with thought of the classroom teacher, the principal, and supervisor—those who are directly concerned with the educational activities of the classroom and the individual school unit. It is designed with the thought of the teacher in service, but with sufficient material to be used as a textbook for courses in normal schools and colleges.

The author is indebted to many for their contributions to this volume: Superintendent James H. Harris and the Board of Education that established, in the schools of Pontiac, Michigan, a department of character education which permitted the author over a period of years to devote his time to experimentation with the materials and methods of character development. The supervisors, principals, and teachers in Pontiac who have participated in this experiment. Two yearbook committees of the National Education Association which have clarified the aims and the principles of character building as they apply to the public schools. Those who have conducted the various experiments in the field which are reported in the following chapters. Authors and publishers of periodicals and books who have kindly granted permission to quote from their

publications. Certain individuals who have been particularly helpful in experimentation and in the preparation of this manuscript: of the personnel of the Pontiac public schools many people but particularly James H. Harris, superintendent; Harriett E. Ratliff, supervisor of kindergarten and primary grades; Kate H. Brown, supervisor of intermediate grades; John Thors, Jr., principal of Pontiac Senior High School, and other individuals and groups mentioned throughout the volume; Paul T. Rankin, director of research and adjustment of the Detroit public schools who has given much assistance in the planning and criticism of the chapters; my wife who has assisted both in the collection of materials and in the preparation of the manuscript.

K. L. H.

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INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER I

THE PROGRAM AND ITS OBJECTIVES

Good character is perhaps the most generally accepted objective of the schools today. Scarcely an educational convention passes or an issue of an educational periodical is published without some reference to the securing of good character through the schools. Nor is the discussion limited to teachers; for parents, lawyers, judges, physicians, social workers, ministers, and many other types of persons are intensely interested in means of insuring good character.

The current emphasis upon education for character is due to a variety of factors, among them (1) the recognition that crime and delinquency constitute a challenge to education; (2) the growing appreciation of the importance of the emotional aspects of life as compared with the intellectual; (3) the general adoption of that philosophy of education which stresses the integration of all the experiences of child life through the provision of increasingly lifelike activities and interpretation in the school; and (4) the awakening among people generally of social-civic consciousness, of large-group-mindedness, of a concern for the welfare of all.

This volume is to be devoted primarily to materials and methods, to the reporting of procedures which are illustrative of what has been done and can be done in schools to provide the setting for the finest personal development in the child. A comprehensive discussion of why the current emphasis upon character has arisen, and of the philosophy of the movement, will not be included. Recent publications¹ have dealt exten-

¹ See particularly the following reference: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, "Character Education," *Tenth Yearbook* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1932), pp. 9-78.

sively with these aspects of the subject and have presented the basic assumptions and the conflicting theories of character education.

In the thought of the writer certain very definite principles are accepted and certain objectives considered as goals to be achieved by each pupil in the school. These objectives will be briefly presented as a part of this introduction and the principles which it is thought should be the foundation of the program will be referred to throughout the volume, but the primary interest will be in methodology, rather than in the field of philosophy.

OBJECTIVES TO BE ACHIEVED

What kind of character is to be developed? What changes in children and in youth are to be made? These questions have been answered in many different ways by educational workers and others interested in the problem. Thus the *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence lists and discusses seventeen types of major objectives presented in courses of study, books, and articles dealing with character:

1. Character as general goodness, something very vague but desirable.
2. Character as conformity to the conventional mores, doing what society expects.
3. Character as life in accord with the dogma of some religion.
4. Character as a composite of many specific conduct habits capable of determination by scientific analyses of life.
5. Character as the service of the state.
6. Character as social usefulness, personal self-sacrifice for the larger good.
7. Character as unselfish motives, love of fellowmen, desire to serve.
8. Character as the harmonious adjustment of the personality.
9. Character as a composite of desirable traits, virtues, and ideals.

10. Character as self-control; inhibition of impulses in accord with rational principles.
11. Character as self-expression; responsibility for getting as much as possible out of one's own life.
12. Character as emotional maturity, objectivity, disinterestedness, intelligent living, foresight, understanding and discrimination of consequences, fair-mindedness, scientific spirit.
13. Character as ways of living that are aesthetically preferable, beauty.
14. Character as sincere action, in accord with conscience.
15. Character as imitation of some ideal persons.
16. Character as creative experience; continuous reconstruction of life.
17. Character as the integration of values, doing the "best" thing in each situation.²

These expressions of the central objective reflect differences in the basic philosophy of life and education. At least, they betoken differences in emphasis placed upon various aspects of that philosophy. The discussion in the *Tenth Yearbook* points out the fact that each of the first sixteen mentioned is satisfactory to a degree,³ but is partial and inadequate when considered alone. The statement concludes:

The good act is one which creates as many and as worthy satisfactions as possible for as many people as possible over as long a time as possible. The rule holds for every race and nation, every age of man. Whether child of three or maid of twenty or sage of sixty, the good character is one who continuously acts in such a way that from his actions flow the results which enrich the living of all those who are affected, over as long a time as the influence of his actions may persist.⁴

² *Ibid.*, pp. 31-59.

³ The reader should be familiar with these seventeen viewpoints and is referred to this *Yearbook* and other publications for a detailed discussion of the various goals and an evaluation of them.

⁴ Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, *op. cit.*, p. 56.

All that need be maintained is that the endeavor to find, in each situation, the best and most inclusive solution, the one which comes nearest to bringing full satisfaction and increased zest to everyone, is the highest standard for character.⁵

The objective remains the discovery or creation of a way of living which conserves and produces as many values as possible for as many persons as possible over as long a time as possible. Character education is the facilitation of this way of life.⁶

When selecting illustrations of educational activities which contribute to the "integration of values," the writer has found it easier to interpret this objective in terms of certain more specific aims which seem to be a part of the whole. No list such as that given below is altogether satisfactory, for it is marked by duplication and possible chance for misunderstanding. It may serve, however, to clarify the trend of thought which has been basic in the preparation of this volume. It would seem that the type of personality which is to be cultivated as the ideal or the goal of the educational process should have such characteristics as the following:

1. A growing ability to meet daily situations and to make the choices in daily life in ways that are the most satisfying to the greatest number of people over the longest period of time.
2. Freedom from unnecessary emotional conflicts or disturbances.
3. Progressive ability to meet the temptations of life through the direction of energy into wholesome channels and by the inhibition of undesirable impulses.
4. Appreciation for the taken-for-granted things of life—the blessings of home, school and community, the service of parents, teachers and public servants, the beauties and necessities provided by nature.
5. Appreciation for the contributions of the past—the achievements, the ideals, the ways of living of the older generation and of the race as a whole.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 57.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 59.

6. Open-mindedness or the ability to modify one's attitudes and ways of living in harmony with new truths and new experiences.
7. Ability to see new problems in old situations. A scientific, critical attitude that does not assume that "all that is, is right" but is sensitive to social and personal defect or error.
8. Independence in thought and action, ability to direct one's life with a decreasing amount of supervision and a maximum of inner control and motivation.
9. A constantly growing consciousness of membership in more and ever larger groups of society—a sense of belonging not only to the family group but to the school group; not only to an economic class and a religious sect, but to the community group, to the national group, and to the world-society.
10. Skill in human relations—the ability to co-operate with other people and to gain the maximum of satisfaction from association with them. Skill in living with those with whom one is thrown in close contact from day to day.
11. Preparation for the social adjustments required in adult life—adjustments to vocation, adjustments to leisure time, adjustments to married life, adjustments to the community group with its civic requirements.
12. A feeling of obligation to make one's contribution to every group to which he belongs. Responsibility to render any possible service to the home, school, community, nation, and world-society.
13. A desire for social improvement. Sensitiveness to social ills. An interest in the continuous progress of industrial, economic, and political life toward the end that all people may profit increasingly from their participation in the social scheme.
14. Integration or organization of the individual's life increasingly about larger and more worthwhile purposes. A feeling of adoption of or consecration to great causes and movements.

In the selection of materials for this volume these fourteen points have been a basis for selection. They have served as criteria for the evaluation of educational processes. Activities have been judged as effective for character education in so far as they have achieved such aims as these. In each instance the

purpose has been to facilitate that way of life which "conserves or produces as many values as possible for as many persons as possible over as long a time as possible."

A PROGRAM OF CHARACTER EDUCATION

This volume has been called *The Character Emphasis in Education* with the thought that character education at its best must be an integral part of the total process of education. It cannot be isolated or limited to special classes and programs and hope to make its maximum contribution to the development of the pupil. The total school experience must be a unity in which personality or character can have its full growth.

A few years ago in a certain well-known city there was a nine-year-old boy who was a poor student, was irritable, was disinterested in school and play, and personally unattractive. Even his parents had about decided that he was feeble-minded. The school physician decided that it would help if his tonsils were removed. The operation was performed. The boy could breathe more freely and was less bothered by colds and sore throats. His system threw off the accumulated poison and he began to feel energetic and interested in life. He was now able to do good work in school. In fact, he was a "new" boy. His mother was, of course, very enthusiastic in her appreciation. She happened to be a rather prominent club woman so she called together her influential friends and told them of the marvelous transformation in her son. Then she proposed to them that they go out and raise enough money to have the tonsils of every pupil in all of the schools in the city removed. Unfortunately we cannot find any panacea that will assure to all children the finest development of personality. The educational process and character itself are far too complex for that. Of one thing we can be certain: character education should be a synthesis of many approaches. It is true that "all education at its best is character education" and also true that character education at its best is a pervading emphasis in all education.

Glimpses of utopia are stimulating, especially when the imaginary picture is not too far removed from the efforts and aspirations of those who are actually engaged in the task of educating boys and girls. We raise the question, therefore, "What would be the nature of a school that considered character as the central aim of education and was trying to do the maximum to realize this aim?"

Using the Regular Program of Instruction to Realize Character Values.

If we should visit such an ideal, imaginary school, our first desire would be to visit the teacher at work. We would want to walk into the classroom in the middle of the teaching schedule to see whether the emphasis upon character had really pervaded the school. We would undoubtedly find that the curriculum itself was undergoing a change in which the daily life and experience of the pupil was replacing sections of textbooks on history, English, arithmetic, and other units of traditional subject matter, as the center of interest. It would be found that the class period did not consist of hour after hour of question-and-answer recitations but children would be sharing in creative group-activities in which they would not only be gathering significant facts about life but would also be learning to live co-operatively. It would undoubtedly be found that the teacher was sensitive to marginal interests which if explored would be of significant value to the child in making his life-adjustments. And, lastly, the teacher would be tremendously interested in the inner life and the personal problems of each pupil and would be alert to see the needs for personal guidance that might arise in the process of classroom activity.

Units of Instruction Which Have Character Education as Their Major Aim.

At least until this school which we are surveying has achieved a complete reorganization of its curriculum it would

undoubtedly be found necessary to introduce certain projects or activities which could not be justified as a part of the regular academic program but which would be introduced with the sole aim of developing character. There has been much disagreement regarding the value of such special units. Some of our best authorities say that such cannot be justified. This opposition seems, in part at least, to be an opposition to particular methods of teaching. The methods often used in units of instruction devoted to character are not too worthy of approval. There is, however, no reason why such units must be identified with any particular method of teaching. A variety of methods can be used, and to use special periods or special units is not to commit one's self to any one procedure. In the chapters that are devoted to the consideration of special character education units, an effort will be made to bring together some of the methods that seem most progressive and give the greatest promise of effectiveness.

Opposition to special units whose aim is character development is partly a protest against setting character apart in a separate compartment of the school and its program. It is evident that if character is a way of living, then character education cannot be effective unless it is a part of the total experience of living. One way to relate character education to the total experience of living is to relate it to the total curriculum of the school. Mention has already been made of the possible use of the regular program of instruction to realize character values. This does not mean, however, that there is not need, even in the most progressive school, for periods and units of instruction, the chief purpose of which is to develop character. Pupils and teacher sit down together, at times, and evaluate conduct, discuss the methods of meeting problematic situations, and the like. Projects are undertaken which have as their chief aim the development of skill in social living. There seems ample justification for saying that in the school that has

a curriculum which is centered about the experiences of daily life, one may find periods and units which have character education as their major aim.

One may feel that the average school and its curriculum are not very closely related to life. Even though the movement is in that direction, there are still many life-interests which are not given recognition in the pupil's daily program. Throughout this chapter we are imagining ourselves visitors in a school that is trying to make character its central aim. With as much rapidity as possible, in view of the slow movement of public opinion and the limited ability of teachers to use new methods, this school would be growing toward a life-centered program. This school would, perhaps, be more conscious of the omissions of the traditional curriculum than of any other of its weaknesses. Even teachers of "the old school" are conscious of many life-interests and problems which demand the guidance of the school and can see the wisdom of introducing activities which will meet these daily problems and enrich these interests. Such activities as will be illustrated in Part II of this volume do not seem to separate farther the curriculum from life, or to place character in a separate compartment of life. On the other hand, it seems possible that these units may become opening wedges for progressive teaching, the sample which will convince teachers, pupils, and the public that the school can make a greater contribution than it has made in the past to the enrichment of daily living.

The imaginary school would not necessarily have a course that is labeled "character education." It might not be labeled as a course, at all. The important thing is that this school would feel free to introduce into its daily schedule those activities, periods of discussion, projects and other forms of instruction which could not be justified upon the basis of any traditional view of the curriculum. These units would be included for one reason, and for one reason alone, and that is be-

cause they enriched the personality of boys and girls by helping them meet the problematic situations of life.

A Program of Pupil Guidance

This ideal school would have discovered that it could not depend exclusively upon the group approach but must give a large measure of individual guidance to its boys and girls. With this thought in mind the teachers would be studying the principles and the methods of adjusting the difficulties of children in order that they might be more sensitive to individual needs and more capable of assisting their children who needed assistance.

In the school there would be opportunity for the boys and girls to have the help of child-guidance specialists. The size of the school and of the city and school district would make a difference. If the size were sufficient, there might be specialized workers in the school or a clinic of specialists serving all of the schools in the city. If such was not the case, the school would affiliate itself with the most convenient source of help and consult this source often, and would refer to the clinic those pupils whose problems of adjustment were too difficult for the teachers and principal to handle. There is no movement in the field of education that has grown more rapidly than that which has given us the counselor, the clinical psychologist, the psychiatrist, the visiting teacher, and the child-guidance clinic. This school of ours would be trying to keep step with this movement and to assist boys and girls to gain the maximum of benefit from it.

Clubs and Other Pupil Activities

It has been assumed for a long time that school clubs, athletic programs, assemblies, and other related activities were productive of character values. The faculty of this ideal school, as it was becoming increasingly character-conscious, would be making observations and raising questions. It would

be discovering a large measure of confusion as to how these activities should be administered to develop character. Even undesirable personal characteristics would sometimes seem to result from them. These observations would be leading the faculty to be very critical of the existing program with the thought of eliminating objectionable features and substituting more constructive ones. New activities would also be introduced in order to meet unfilled personal needs and to benefit students not previously touched by any program of this type.

Administration of the School as a Whole

The interest in the character emphasis would in no place be more obvious than in the principal's office as he directed the general activities of the school. The principal would have enlisted the help of his teachers in critical evaluation of the general plan of the curriculum, the plan for discipline, the system of grading and reporting pupil achievement and citizenship, the instruction for special or atypical groups of children, the awarding of honors and prizes, and a multitude of other things. The consideration of these aspects of school administration would lead, first of all, to an interest in the possibility of enlisting the student body to co-operate with the faculty in matters of school administration. Faculty and pupils would be criticizing, modifying, and initiating plans from week to week. The co-operative relationship itself would be found productive of good and the plan of administration would be passing through a process of gradual improvement.

Utilization of Home and Community Influences

Our imaginary school had been going along energetically trying to modify its program with the thought of the character needs of children, and was gaining a sense of assurance. Then a speaker came to speak in the community and in the course of his address asked this question: "How can the schools guide our children into a higher life if the children find that in

their homes and in their community people do not practice the principles of this higher life?" The problem of educating for character took on new complexity. The teachers did not have to look far to see the conflicts between the aims they had for the pupils and the other influences in the community. The first step was a critical study of the community, which served to intensify the feeling that an educational program that touched the child only during the school day was inadequate. In some manner the school had to shed its influence into the home and the community, or, even better than that, the school should enlist outside agencies in a co-operative movement for the betterment of boy and girl life. This has been the most discouraging task of the school because it has been difficult to launch and results have not been quickly evident.

THE PLAN OF THIS VOLUME

The pages that follow are made up of illustrations of certain types of procedures which have been used in various school systems to emphasize character values. We have already intimated that there is disagreement among educators regarding the objectives to be achieved. The disagreement regarding the methods to be followed is no less. In this regard a statement in the *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence is pertinent.

This diversity of views among serious students of an important problem in education is discouraging. It indicates that we still lack sufficient scientific evidence to give a perfectly clear answer on all the issues. This we must frankly admit. An examination of each of the issues in detail, however, shows that the case is not quite so bad as it appears at first sight to be. The differences of opinion are due in part to an ignorance of such scientific evidence as does exist or to the failure to consider it carefully and impartially. All opinions are not equally good. Differences on important issues can be found in almost every field, even in the older sciences. The diver-

gencies in the field of character education, therefore, need not deter us from attempting to discriminate among opinions and to discover which are the best founded.⁷

In view of these conditions in the field it would be presuming too much to insist that the plans which follow have actually produced results in the lives of boys and girls and that similar procedures would be helpful if followed by other teachers. In general, it seems that these particular samples are in harmony with the objectives mentioned above and have seemed, to those who have observed the methods in operation, to have been reasonably effective. These are the only claims made for them by the author. Oftentimes weeds are mixed with the wheat and in many of the samples of wheat there will be found survivals of methods which are not entirely in harmony with the best accepted principles of psychology and education. On the other hand, these samples are filled with promise. They are the products of a transition age and have in them symptoms of progress.

It is to be hoped that teachers will not make a wrong interpretation of this volume and its possible use. The best of educational procedures must grow out of the interests and the experience of pupils and teacher. Very rarely can one teacher's plan be taken over and used by another without modification. This is not a volume of stunts or devices. It is the record of the experience of classroom groups and is presented with the hope that it will stimulate other teachers to develop their own methods in co-operation with their own particular groups of children.

⁷ P. 77.

PART I

HOW THE TEACHER MAY USE THE REGU-
LAR CURRICULUM TO SECURE
CHARACTER VALUES

CHAPTER II

THE CHANGE OF THE CENTER OF INTEREST FROM "SUBJECT MATTER" TO "LIFE"

The largest part of the teacher's day is devoted to the regular curriculum of the school. If there is going to be a growing emphasis upon character in the total school experience, then the first interest of the teacher should be to use the regular curriculum to secure character values. The majority of teachers have at least dared to hope that their pupils have found their total personality enriched as they have shared in the various units of the curriculum, and many of them have very definitely planned their classroom work with this aim in mind. English, social sciences, industrial and commercial subjects, mathematics and the sciences, modern and classical languages—there is no department but what has attempted to take its place in the movement.

There seem to be at least four different trends which tend to make the daily activities of the teacher increasingly significant and productive of character values. These trends can be briefly stated as follows:

1. The center of interest is changing from "subject-matter" to "life," so that the curriculum is taking on greater meaning for the pupil in relationship to his daily experiences and problems of adjustment.
2. Teachers are learning to utilize significant life-interests and marginal problems not directly related to the curriculum but which are brought into consciousness in the routine of teaching.
3. The methods of teaching are changing so that participation in classroom activities is becoming a significant social experience.
4. Teachers are learning to consider the conflicts and problems of conduct which arise in the classroom as teaching opportunities to be used rather than to be avoided.

In the pages which follow, these four trends will be considered and samples given of the actual operation of each in the classroom. This chapter and chapter iii consider the first of these trends and another chapter is devoted to each of the three other trends. Each of these chapters includes a general discussion of the principles involved, followed by a section devoted to illustrations from practice.

THE SHIFTING CENTER OF INTEREST

The *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence says that "Any curriculum that makes a sincere, intelligent, and courageous approach to the real problem of living is a character education curriculum."¹ That such an emphasis is creeping into our curriculum is suggested by the titles of recent textbooks in almost every field. A perusal of booklists brings to one's attention: *Literature and Living*, *Everyday Economics*, *Conduct and Citizenship* (civics), *Making Citizens of the Mentally Limited* (curriculum for special rooms), *Nations as Neighbors* (geography), *Social Aspects of Homemaking* (home economics), *Planning Your Future* (occupational information), *English for Daily Use*, and scores of other titles. Often the volume itself does not justify the title but the trend is evident.² Obviously it is not considered sufficient that pupils shall master the multiplication tables, learn to spell, and memorize the correct rules of grammar, or master all of the units of subject matter, but in

¹ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, "Character Education," *Tenth Yearbook* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1932), p. 179.

² For an analysis of the points of emphasis in textbook materials now in use the teacher is referred to a recent study of the civic attitudes expressed in nearly four hundred textbooks in history; civics, sociology, economic and political problems; geography; reading; music; foreign languages. The findings in this study are contained in the volume: B. L. Pierce, *Civic Attitudes in American School Textbooks* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930), 297 pages.

some way each course in the curriculum must be valuable in relation to the daily demands of life.

Certain progressive educators are advocating a revision of the basic units of the curriculum so that they will conform with the new concepts which are developing. Such a change has been in progress in elementary schools, but the basic plan of instruction in secondary schools has remained essentially unchanged. Plans are being suggested for a revamping of even the senior high school. Goodwin Watson has suggested a plan for re-organization with seven major departments: Health, Personal Relations, Vocations, Money and Goods, the Social Order, Recreation, and one which he calls "The Interpretation of the Universe."³ Some such readjustments will undoubtedly come in the future but will be slow in view of college-entrance requirements and the many difficulties of reorganization.

The illustrations of the shifting emphasis in the curriculum do not lend themselves to helpful classifications. Some of the units have involved the exploration of literature. Selections have been chosen for the curriculum which involve problems of personal living and social relationships. This type of unit is illustrated in the paragraphs that follow by the examples from the teaching of high-school English courses, the use of outside reading, modern poetry, and story materials in elementary grades.⁴ Similar to this is the illustration from a fourth-grade history course, under the heading, "The Lives of Great Men." Often the reading of literature leads into other forms of activity, such as in the reported "Plan for the Reading of Biography" or the project which started with "Sir Roger de Coverley."

³ *Progressive Education*, VIII (April, 1931), 303-10.

⁴ For the sake of convenience the illustrations will be numbered. The illustrations referred to in this paragraph are Nos. 1-9. A few of the suggestions in Nos. 15 and 16 call for the exploration of reading materials which are related to life-situations.

Some of the units have involved very definite study and discussion of crucial problems. This is illustrated particularly by the shift in curriculum of the social sciences, in the use of current events, and many of the suggestions for English compositions. History and geography are becoming more concerned with social relationships and less with dates and wars, locations and products. The increased emphasis upon the social studies in elementary grades and the organization of a kindergarten curriculum, the entire purpose of which is to assist the child in making necessary adjustments, are evidences of the trend. The same shift is also represented by units which give opportunity for first-hand contact with problems and constructive efforts to solve or relieve them. This is illustrated by the "Co-operative Project of High School Civics Classes and City Officials" and by other similar projects which will be presented in subsequent chapters.⁵

The mere presence of vocational subjects in the curriculum is evidence of an interest on the part of the school in the major life-adjustments of the child. They were introduced as a part of the movement to relate the curriculum to the practical demands of life. At first these courses were concerned primarily with the manual skills that are required of the draftsman, the auto mechanic, or the machinist. Since the introduction of vocational subjects into the curriculum, however, observation and research studies⁶ have indicated that vocational skill is not the greatest need for students who plan to enter the ranks of employment. John M. Brewer⁷ of the Bureau of Vocational Guidance, Harvard University, tabu-

⁵ See illustrations Nos. 10-18.

⁶ Notably Bulletin No. 45, Federal Board for Vocational Education, "Employment Management Series," No. 6, *The Turnover of Labor* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1920), and S. H. Slichter, *The Turnover of Factory Labor* (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1919).

⁷ *Religious Education*, XXV (January, 1930), 39-41.

lated the causes of discharge of 4,375 workers and made a very interesting discovery. He found that only 34.2 per cent of these workers had lost their positions because of incompetence and slowness, because physically unadapted, or because they spoiled their work. In other words, only a third were failures because of lack of skill or technical training. According to the same study, however, 62.4 per cent were discharged because of insubordination, unreliability, absenteeism, laziness, trouble-making, drinking, violation of rules, and other personal characteristics. Such findings as these suggest the need for some method by which boys and girls who are taking vocational training may receive more than the necessary training in work skills, and can receive guidance in the development of necessary personal qualities and social skills as well. The shift in home economics is equally significant. Cooking and sewing are essential in the home but the student who is preparing himself for the management of the home needs to be familiar with other factors of the family relationship, and with the principles and methods of child training and care.⁸

In more recent years another point of emphasis has come into the field of vocational education which is illustrative of the interest in social values. Industrial arts and commercial courses are being advocated for their cultural value. Students are urged to take them, not as vocational preparation, but as an introduction to the world of work, and because of the understanding and sympathy which may result to them when they enter other vocational fields.

The tool subjects, like arithmetic and English composition, can be related to the practical demands of life. Some are advocating that the course of study in mathematics be limited to the forms of calculation which are actually used in everyday life, and recent textbooks are evidencing a tendency to eliminate certain types of problems which would never be used in

⁸ See illustrations 19-24, chap. iii.

later life and to substitute the mathematical problems of everyday living and business negotiations. Some are insisting that the needs of childhood must be emphasized rather than even the actual mathematical needs of adult life. A critic⁹ of a recent yearbook on the teaching of arithmetic suggests that the informational phase of arithmetic must be given more emphasis and the computational, less. He suggests, for example, that it is important that the child understand the origin and significance of the monetary system, as well as that he learn how to make change. He should understand the uses of arithmetic, understand as well as use the units of measure, and consider other matters of socially significant information.

A similar shift in the teaching of English composition gives us courses in business English, practice in writing business and personal letters, courses in public speaking designed for the average individual rather than the selected few who may become platform orators, training to assist in daily conversation and in talking over the telephone, etc. While these necessary skills are being cultivated, another value or by-product can be developed. Often the subjects of compositions and of arithmetic problems can be selected with the thought of the dual value. It is valuable for students to learn to write letters. The value is greater if the subject of the letter is something of significance. For example, if the student writes a letter about the information he has secured concerning the advantages and disadvantages of law as a profession, the desired practice in letter-writing is secured and the student has also been stimulated to think upon the matter of vocational choice. Likewise, a problem in mathematics if it deals with figures which are in themselves significant—problems that involve the computation of the per capita cost of crime, the cost to society of some

⁹ Critique prepared by Leo J. Brueckner and committee of the *Twenty-ninth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1930), pp. 681-709.

of the benefits enjoyed by childhood and youth, etc.—are of dual value. The course of study tends to have more interest for the student when he sees some relationship between working problems in algebra, or writing endless compositions, and his daily interests and experiences. There is greater interest as well as greater value. The subject is thought of as less of a task when its social utility becomes evident.¹⁰

Courses in the sciences reflect the shift in interest. There are courses in “applied” physics, chemistry, etc. There is also an effort to develop what has been called the “scientific attitude.” It has been hoped that students would learn to take the same thoughtful, fact-finding attitude toward all of the experiences and choices of life that is practiced in the science laboratory.¹¹

Often elements introduced in the curriculums are planned to develop pleasant associations with certain types of experience. This is illustrated by the “Correlated History and Art Project with Emphasis upon Appreciation for the Church.” Most of the suggestions for “Developing World-Friendship” and those on “Relating Music to Life Situations” are of this type.¹²

ILLUSTRATIONS WHICH SUGGEST THE CHANGING EMPHASIS

1. *Plan for the Reading of Biography in High-School English Courses*

The following plan was followed in a tenth-grade class in English¹³ to motivate the reading of biography and to guide

¹⁰ See illustrations 16 and 17 in this chapter, and numbers 25 and 26 in chap. iii.

¹¹ See illustration 27, chap. iii.

¹² See illustrations 28–30, chap. iii.

¹³ This unit is now incorporated in the course of study of Pontiac Senior High School, Pontiac, Michigan. John Antisdell, chairman of the English Department.

the student toward an appreciation of the philosophy of life of the character whose biography he reads.

The first step was an informal discussion of the topic, "What makes life worth while?" or "What makes a man a success?" Following this discussion it was suggested that each student select some well-known character and attempt to discover what made his life worth while. The following list of questions was given to the students to help them analyze the biography:

- a) Was the character a successful man? Why do you think he was or was not?
- b) What was the great ambition, purpose, or ideal which he hoped to achieve through this vocation? Was he happy in his work? What service did he render to society? Was his service done for the good of others or because it was good business policy? Are we better off today because he lived?
- c) What did you learn about his home life? Was it a help to him in the rest of his life?
- d) What did you find out about his recreational life? Did the type of interests he had in his leisure hours increase or decrease his energy and ability to achieve?
- e) What avocations or hobbies did the individual have? Did he render any service or enrich his life through his hobbies?
- f) What do you think this man would say was important in life?

After the reading was completed the findings were discussed in class. It was evident to the class that no character is perfect and that even the best have their limitations and mistakes. Both the failures and successes were considered.

It was thought that the study of biographies of notable characters was likely to set a rather unfair standard. It was suggested by the teacher that each pupil interview one of his parents or some other adult in the community to discover what they considered as essential to a worth-while life. The class worked together in the preparation of a list of questions to use in interviewing. The list is perhaps more elaborate than is necessary.

- a) Do you have to be famous or do something unusual in order to succeed?
- b) Does a person necessarily have to be wealthy to be successful?
- c) How much does a person have to accomplish to become a success?
- d) What things in your life have given you the greatest satisfaction? What things make life worth while?
- e) What was your ambition as a boy (or girl)?
- f) Did your education help you to succeed in life?
- g) How much education should young people of today seek?
- h) Who should go and who should not go to college? Does it establish him better in life?
- i) What do you recommend a young man or woman to do to prepare for life, besides getting an education?
- j) What things should a person be interested in besides his or her education? What habits of life should he cultivate?

The students each made a report and a tabulation was made of the answers on question (*d*). As a result of this tabulation the class came to the conclusion that the following elements make life worth while; although some factors are ranked much higher by one person than by another.

- a) Health.
- b) Character, a clear conscience and self-respect.
- c) Broad knowledge of life, education, books to read, etc.
- d) A regular income and financial independence.
- e) Friends.
- f) Love, home life, parenthood.
- g) Religion.
- h) Recreation and amusements.
- i) Regular work.
- j) Satisfaction of having done a good piece of work.
- k) Enjoyment of art, music, and the beauties of nature.
- l) Being of service to other people.
- m) Fame and popularity with a large group of people.

2. *Life as Portrayed in Literature*

A committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has submitted a curriculum for junior and senior high school English which is illustrative of current emphases in the curriculum. It was the almost unanimous agreement of the Association that "the high-school course in English should be organized primarily with reference to basic personal and social needs." Throughout the preliminary statement of the report and the suggested content of the various courses, one is impressed with the emphasis upon preparing pupils "to meet life situations," "improving English in use," selecting literature to give students an "interpretation of happy and successful living," and the cultivation of the "habit of reading for pleasure" and "well-defined tastes with regard to type and quality."¹⁴ These objectives make necessary the selection of a large proportion of contemporary literature, and the detailed list of suggested materials includes a wealth and variety of literature from both the classics and from present-day writings.

In addition to this general plan for the six-year curriculum, the Association has published detailed outlines for several other curriculum units which suggest the same trend in the teaching of English. Three of these deal with "American Life as Interpreted in American Literature." The outline of these units is as follows:¹⁵

Unit I. American Ideals

A. Loyalty

1. to home, home folks and the soil
2. To friends and loved ones

¹⁴ From the report as published in the *North Central Association Quarterly*, V (March, 1931), 553-69. This report includes materials for the six-year course.

¹⁵ This outline and bibliography of materials for each unit as prepared by J. L. Taylor and R. L. Lyman are printed in the *North Central Association Quarterly*, *ibid.*, pp. 535-52.

3. To clan—group, school, college, etc.
4. To country
5. To ideals
- B. Fraternity—democracy
People working together for:
 1. Independence
 - a) Personal
 - b) State
 - c) National
 2. Equality
 - a) Political
 - b) Prison reform
 - c) Woman suffrage
 - d) Equality for all the world

Unit II. American Leaders

- A. Social and economic leaders
- B. Political leaders
- C. Religious leaders
- D. Military and naval leaders
- E. Explorers and frontiersmen

Unit III. American Types

- A. New England
- B. Southern
- C. Middle West
- D. Far-West, Northwest, and Southwest

Another group of units in the series correlate English with vocational guidance, including units on "Ideals of Business," "Character Study of Successful Men," "Choosing a Vocation," etc.¹⁶

Many schools have been gradually introducing such materials as those mentioned above and a few have put into use entire courses. Denver, for example, offers in the eighth grade a course which correlates with the study of United States

¹⁶ Prepared by Elizabeth Robinson and R. L. Lyman, *North Central Association Quarterly*, *ibid.*, pp. 528-34. An outline of materials is included with the units.

history and is entitled, "Life in the United States as Portrayed in Her Literature." There are units with such titles as "Brothers All," "Our Worker," "Love of Freedom," "Heroes of American Life," etc.¹⁷ Denver also offers a unit in the senior high school on "Social and Industrial Problems"¹⁸ which again brings into the curriculum the issues of social living.

This desire to make the study of literature helpful to the student in meeting life-situations has involved certain changes in method as well as in the content of courses. Some of these will be mentioned in a later chapter on "Stories as the Basis for Character Education."

3. Ideals of the People of Many Lands as Expressed in Their Folk Stories

A fifth-grade class in geography was making a survey of the chief characteristics of the three continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa. The teacher thought that as she introduced her class to the principal cities, rivers, and products of the country she should also introduce them to the personal characteristics, ideals, and ambitions of the people. Much of this information came out naturally as the geographical features, the industrial life, and the agricultural products of each country were presented. The teacher proposed that the class consider two other sources of information about the characteristics of the people—the folk stories and the lives of the great men of each country. Both should present the finest in national life—the folk tales presenting the ideals of the people and the biography presenting the heroes of the people. During the

¹⁷ For a complete plan of the course and list of references the reader is referred to Public Schools, Denver, Colorado, *English, Junior High School*, "Course of Study Monograph," No. 9 (2d rev. ed.; Denver, Colo.: Public Schools, 1931), pp. 46-61.

¹⁸ Public Schools, Denver, Colorado, *English, Senior High School*, "Course of Study Monograph," No. 10 (2d rev. ed.; Denver, Colo.: Public Schools, 1931), p. 42.

semester the teacher told some of the stories to the children and they had opportunity to read in some of the collections which contain such stories. Some of these stories were discussed in relationship to the daily experience of the pupil but many were only considered for the appreciation they gave of the ideals of other peoples.

4. *Authors and Their Philosophy of Life*

In the study of almost any writings it is profitable to consider the philosophy of the writer as it is reflected in what he has written. One high-school teacher¹⁹ reports a valuable discussion of Emerson upon the basis of such questions as the following:

- a) What things does the author consider worth while in life?
- b) What ideals or standards does he advocate?
- c) What is his purpose or motive in writing?
- d) What advice does he offer for the best use of one's time and ability?

Such a study of an author's philosophy of life is likely to seem removed from actual life unless the teacher consciously plans the discussion so that it will be related to the experience of the students. It is helpful, in the first place, if the teacher aids the class to appreciate some of the actual problems met by a man like Emerson and the way in which he tried to apply his philosophy to his own experience. This serves to remove the discussion from the purely abstract. The class should also be prompted to consider present-day experience and the possible help which may be received from the writer in the meeting of current issues and difficulties.

5. *Character Studies of Men and Women in Fiction*

Such classics as *Silas Marner*, *Idylls of the King*, the various plays of Shakespeare, etc., and the better books of modern

¹⁹ Based upon suggestions in the English course of study, Pontiac (Michigan) Senior High School.

fiction contain the material for valuable character analysis. The following questions are suggested as a basis for the discussion of the characters studied in several classics which are read during a semester:

- a) If this character actually lived in our community today, would he be an asset or a social liability?
- b) Analyze the personality of this character from the standpoint of the elements of strength, the elements of weakness, and your general opinion of the type of individual which he represents.
- c) What ideals and what ambitions motivated this life? Would he be considered a strong character in this time? In view of the changes in standards and customs, would his ideals and ambitions be considered worthy ones today? How would they function in our community today?²⁰

Suggested plans for the discussion of *Julius Caesar*, *The Last of the Mohicans*, *The Merchant of Venice*, and Cornelia Parker's *No. 1075 Packs Chocolates* are contained in C. C. Peter, *Objectives and Procedures in Civic Education*, pp. 168-69.²¹

6. *Outside or Supplementary Reading*

Miss Lucy L. Wilson tells of how the matter of emotional disturbances was introduced to students in the South Philadelphia High School for Girls through the discussion of books.

One of the teachers, as a preliminary to discussions of mental health, told her group the story of Clifford Beers, *The Man Who Came Back*.²² Her pupils were so deeply interested that she brought them for the next meeting a book that she herself was reading, Bertrand Russell's *Conquest of Happiness*. She read to them some of the chapter endings, summarizing the effects of envy and the other emotions that contribute to unhappiness. To her surprise two pu-

²⁰ English course of study, Pontiac (Michigan) Senior High School.

²¹ New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1930.

²² *The Mind That Found Itself*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1908. 363 pages.

pils asked to read the book, and, another, the chairman of the group, said "Ought not a committee of us read the whole thing in order better to organize later discussion?" The committee, entirely from their own initiative, brought in a very worth-while outline with two big units, "What Makes People Unhappy" and "The Causes of Happiness."²³

The volume, *Larry, Thoughts of Youth*,²⁴ has been recommended to Seniors in Pontiac Senior High School because of the background it forms for the discussion of college life and preparation for it.

Suggestions of volumes for use in grades 1-9 will be found in the second volume of *A Guide to Books for Character*, by Starbuck and Others,²⁵ as well as in other reading lists for general use in English.

7. *Stories, Poetry, and Other Forms of Literature Which Influence the Living of Boys and Girls*

Various textbooks for reading and literature classes have been prepared with the thought of their character value. The reading selections have been chosen because of their implications for the life of the child as well as for their value as literature. The teacher will find suggestions in chapter xiii as to the best way to select and use literature for its influence upon the character of children. The titles of volumes of stories and poems and of textbooks can be secured from publishing houses and need not be given here.

8. *The Lives of Great Men*

In Pontiac the fourth-grade work in history consists primarily of a series of biographies of outstanding historical

²³ *English Journal*, XX (May, 1931), 387.

²⁴ *Larry, Thoughts of Youth*. New York: Association Press, 1930.

²⁵ E. D. Starbuck and Others (Institute of Character Research, University of Iowa), *Guide to Books for Character*, Vol. II, *Fiction*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930.

characters. The discussion very naturally includes the analysis of these lives as related to present-day life. The following questions are frequently raised:

- a) Why are these ranked among the great men of history?
- b) What contribution did each make to the world?
- c) What obstacles did they have to overcome in their lives?
- d) What fine characteristics did they show in their daily life, in home and community?
- e) What kind of boys or girls were they?
- f) What suggestions can I get from their lives which will strengthen my own?²⁷

Near the end of the semester another emphasis is brought into the discussion. Gradually the class sets up standards which it is thought should apply to the truly great man. Then the questions are raised: Are there any heroes living today? Do you know any? Why do you think they are heroes? Do you know any boys or girls who are heroes? The children respond with individual cases which they think contain real marks of greatness and in a series of several discussions the concept of greatness becomes more vivid.

9. *Sir Roger de Coverley and Deception*

Edith E. Brander, a teacher of English in West Side High School, Newark, New Jersey, reports a plan used with seventy-five eleventh-grade students in the study of the *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers*. Miss Brander suggested that the class form an imaginary club like that of the *Spectator* and discuss the current interests and problems of high-school life.

Each student decided to write a series of five familiar essays, the first one of which was to tell how the imaginary school club came into existence and was to characterize three or four of its members. There was much fun describing such characters as Jack Doolittle, John Knowitall, Lotta Noyes, Rosy Painter, etc. The next three

²⁷ *A Program of Character Education*, Syllabus for Fourth Grade, Pontiac (Michigan) Public Schools.

papers were to be familiar essays dealing with the aforementioned characters in different school situations, such as "Jack Doolittle in the Library," or "An Honor Study Class"; "John Knowitall as a Club Member or a Class Officer"; "Lotta Noyes in the Laboratory or the Home Room," etc. The last paper was to concern itself with the dissolution of the club—as, for example, "The Graduation of the Valuable Members," or "The Failure of the Club Pests." . . .

Every phase of school life was covered by these essays. Nothing written in a spirit of carping criticism or a holier-than-thou attitude was accepted. Student opinion was expressed on such matters as honesty in home-work, plagiarism, the duties and responsibilities of club members and of club officers, behavior in the auditorium during an uninteresting program, cheating during examinations, cutting school or classes, the treatment of school property, and treatment of Freshmen. . . .

Our next step was to build up public opinion in favor of the socially desirable practices and against the socially undesirable ones. Of course, the students all wished to read each others essays. Some of these we read and discussed in class, both from the literary and the ethical standpoints; but the vast majority we couldn't take the time to read in this manner. It was suggested that the essays be left on a table in the front of the room so that the students, not only of these particular classes but of any class in the school, might read them during the noon hour. In this way the children got the encouragement of the reading public and the reading public got the opinion of the student satirists. Thus a body of fine public opinion was built up.²⁸

Starting two weeks after the completion of the unit, without the knowledge of the students, various efforts were made to find out whether there was a carry-over into the daily life of the students in the classes. Freshmen were asked to observe and report the conduct of thirty boys who had taken part in the "De Coverley" classes and who were members of the Service League. All were on the job. In the honor-study classes the president in charge was asked to observe whether these

²⁸ *English Journal*, XX (November, 1931), 747-48.

students attended to business and whether they created any annoyance. Adverse reports were received for only two of thirty-two during the week that they were being watched. During the same week the same two students and three others were given adverse reports for conduct in the library and study classes. Ten volunteers were asked to meet to make plans to provide service for Freshmen who might profit from the tutoring of upperclassmen. There were twenty-five who came to the meeting. Before the project was undertaken all students had been given Form AS of Dr. Julius B. Maller's "Self Marking Test" which is a group test of honesty in school work. After the completion of the project they were given Form BS and the deception score was lower for twenty-five of the students. All these efforts to check the results of the study of *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers* suggest at least a measure of desirable character outcomes.

10. *Social Science Courses That Emphasize Real Life-Problems*

The statement is made in the *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence²⁹ that the curriculum must be so modified that it will center in the social studies. The reason given is that the social studies offer the best opportunity for direct attack upon the problems of life.

All other elements of school curriculums, of whatever value, can be related to the one general problem of how people may best live together and as individuals. It is in answer to this question that the social studies are addressed. It is in answer to this question that the contributions made by the physical sciences—physics, chemistry, mathematics and the like—are to be properly used. It is in answer to this question that the most constructive use can be made of the contributions from the field of the fine arts. It is in answer to this question that a widened program of adult education becomes imperative. It is in this field that all pupils develop their attitudes, form their concepts, and acquire habits of study and thought which

²⁹ P. 183.

make it possible for them to deal intelligently with the problems of current living. It is clear that the field of the social studies, thus broadly considered, becomes the focus of our thinking in a program of curriculum making that aims at the development of real character.³⁰

When courses in social science are so conceived, they do become courses in "character education." One is conscious as he reads chapter vi in the *Tenth Yearbook* that the view of the social studies expressed in that volume is somewhat more comprehensive than that which is represented by the traditional course in civics or other units in the social science curriculum of the majority of school systems. The traditional social studies courses said little about the profit motive in industry; the ethics of commercial contracts; thrift and intelligent spending of money; problems of a changing home and family life; problems of sex; or the contributions of the fine arts, of esthetics, and of religion to a full life.³¹ The trend is toward an emphasis upon the requirements and problems of social and personal living, a trend which is reflected in the courses of progressive teachers and in much of the recently published textbooks materials.

11. *A High-School Course in Social and Economic Problems*

A social science course offered to Juniors and Seniors in Pontiac Senior High School gives a brief introduction to the study of social and economic history, then devotes the remainder of the time to the consideration of current social and economic problems. The members of each class are allowed considerable freedom in the selection of the problems which are to be discussed in class. Each is permitted time each week for extensive reading in current periodicals with freedom to select

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 183.

³¹ This list of problems is taken from a group of "Illustrative Social Problems" presented in the *Tenth Yearbook*, pp. 183-90.

his own readings and is asked to make a very careful investigation and report during the semester on one social and one economic problem. Some of the topics of major interest in this course are the following:

1. Antagonism between labor and capital.
2. Conservation of natural resources.
3. Labor unions and their future opportunities.
4. Stabilization of banking.
5. Financial crises and panics.
6. Problems and possible changes in taxation.
7. Dangers and advantages of credit and instalment buying.
8. Railroads and transportation.
9. Unemployment.
10. Co-operative control of industry.
11. Child labor.
12. Women in industry.
13. Dishonesty and inefficiency in politics.
14. Problems of immigration and assimilation of foreign-born populations.
15. Law violation.
16. Causes and cures of crime.
17. Juvenile delinquency, the values of juvenile courts, child-guidance clinics, etc.
18. Problems of adjusting education to changing conditions.
19. The influence of motion pictures, radio, and newspapers upon the ideals and opinions of the public.
20. Leisure time and its use.
21. Lack of interest of the average citizen in social and political problems.

For a more complete list of the social problems which demand attention today, the reader is referred to the following source:

Hockett, J. A., *A Determination of the Major Social Problems of American Life*. Contributions to Education, No. 281. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1927. 101 pages.

It contains a tabulation of almost four hundred problems based upon an analysis of current books on social issues, the current events in the *Literary Digest*, and the editorials in the *Outlook*, *Independent*, *Nation*, and the *New Republic* from January, 1920, to December, 1925.

12. *Social Studies in Elementary Grades*

One of the evidences of the shift in center of interest in the elementary curriculum is the increased emphasis upon the social sciences. The fact that the elementary school has been somewhat free from the restrictions of college entrance requirements and other definite restrictions has made it relatively easy to keep up with the progressive trends in curriculum building. The social studies, citizenship, problems of daily living, have received greater emphasis in the average elementary school than in secondary schools. As progressive a state as Michigan mentioned no social science below the eighth grade in the course of study syllabus³² as late as 1918. The next edition of this syllabus,³³ in 1922, recommended it for all grades above the second. Now the place of the social studies in all elementary grades is quite widely recognized.

A recent publication³⁴ that deals with the social science curriculum in the primary grades suggests the phases of community life which are of interest to children and are frequently touched upon in these grades:

1. The home.
 - A. What home means.
 - B. What we learn at home.
 - C. What we can do to help at home.

³² Department of Public Instruction, State of Michigan, *Manual and Course of Study, Elementary Grades*. 13th ed. Lansing, Mich.: Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1918.

³³ Department of Public Instruction, State of Michigan, *Course of Study Syllabus, Elementary Grades*. 14th ed. Lansing, Mich.: Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1922.

³⁴ Grace E. Storm, *The Social Studies in the Primary Grades*. Chicago: Lyons & Carnahan, 1931. 596 pages.

2. The community.
 - A. Interdependence of home and community.
 - B. Study of the community as a whole.
 - a) Right attitudes toward the community and its workers.
 - b) Fundamental facts about the community life.
 - c) Social habits such as safety, cooperation in the community, etc.
 - C. Specific phases of the community life, such as the grocery, the library and the post office.
3. Historical units.
 - A. Indian life.
 - B. Local and pioneer history.
4. Miscellaneous units related to social relationships.
 - A. Farm life.
 - B. Milk and its handling and distribution.
 - C. Transportation.
 - D. Clothing, textiles, their manufacture, appreciation for those who produce them, etc.
5. Social types.
Desert life, Swiss mountain peoples, Japanese and Chinese, etc.
6. Moral and social habits.
7. The celebration of holidays and special days.

These same interests carry over into the upper elementary grades but others also find expression in the curriculum. Some of those mentioned in another familiar publication³⁵ as of interest in fourth, fifth, and sixth grades are:

1. The organization and operation of a school bank.
2. Dramatization of history stories.
3. Units about colonial life.
4. European relief bazaar.
5. Elementary student council.
6. Raising money and purchasing equipment for a nursery in the neighborhood.

³⁵ Lincoln Elementary School Staff, *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1927. 359 pages.



AN INDIAN LIFE PROJECT

13. *By-Products of an Indian Life Project*

Any project which concerns itself with the daily life and experience of any group of peoples is likely to provoke in children a critical interest in their own life. This can be illustrated with some of the spontaneous interests which have developed from projects in Indian life developed in the third-grade classes in Pontiac, Michigan. The classes usually start out to familiarize themselves with the manner of life, the home life, the vocations and avocations, the dress, and other characteristics of the red race. In one class it was decided to organize the room as a tribe with weekly council meetings. Each pupil made a simple costume to wear at the meetings, a tribal song was prepared, and a chief and story-teller elected. This council meeting, without being so planned at first, gradually began to be the center for discussion of the children's thoughts about the interests and life of the Indian as related to our present life.

One of the most noticeable characteristics in Indian life was the way in which every member of the tribe co-operated and was loyal to the group. Even the youngest had his work to do. The observation of this characteristic often led to a discussion of the related topic: "What can we do to co-operate in our own homes?" Some of the ways to help in the home that came up for discussion under this heading were:

- a) Being prompt in doing the little things which one is supposed to do each day.
- b) Hurrying home after school and from play.
- c) Being thoughtful of others in the home.
- d) Courteous acts that make parents proud of their children.
- e) Being careful in selecting playmates.
- f) Helpfulness in the care of smaller children in the home.
- g) Being prompt in getting up in the morning.
- h) Learning to do things for one's self.
- i) Gratitude for the things parents provide.

- j) Taking care of toys.
- k) Taking care of one's clothes.
- l) Respect for the greater wisdom of parents.
- m) Looking for opportunities to make mother's work easier.
- n) Not quarreling over toys.

The story about the honest Indian in *The Indian How Book*,³⁶ by Arthur C. Parker, led on one occasion to a discussion of the Indian's respect for property rights. From this start there developed the discussion of such topics as:

- a) Why do you suppose the Indians were honest? What did they have which belonged to them and which they could not afford to have stolen?
- b) What do you own which belongs to you? Would you like for someone to come and take your shoes, for himself? Why would it not be all right for him to do it?
- c) Do your parents own anything which isn't yours? What things do you just help yourself to at home? What things do you ask for before you take them?
- d) What things does the school lend to children to use? What can we do to make school buildings, books, and other equipment last a long time?
- e) When you break something which belongs to someone else, what should you do?
- f) What should we do when we find something that has been lost?
- g) What do you do when someone makes a mistake and gives you too much change at the store, or an extra sheet of paper at school?
- h) What is best to do when you have broken something which doesn't belong to you?

Mention of the Indian peace pipe sometimes led to questions on smoking,³⁷ or a discussion of the initiation ceremonies

³⁶ Arthur C. Parker, *The Indian How Book* (Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1927), pp. 224-26.

³⁷ The children were interested in *Ned, the Indian*, by Clara A. Williams (M. A. Donohue & Co., 1912) and the reference to smoking on pages 11-12.

raised questions regarding the day-dreams and ambitions of the pupils.

There is a teaching difficulty in the comparison of Indian life and modern life due to the fact that the conduct and ideals of the Indians were not always in harmony with our present-day standards. Part of this may be explained as due to their resentment at the treatment given them by the white man. It must also be remembered that they lived quite a while ago and their code of ethics applied only to the tribal group and not to those outside of the tribe. The tribe was as the national group of today and those outside the tribal group were "foreigners" and not deserving of the consideration and treatment given to the members of the tribe. It is only during recent years that the civilized nations have come to see that there should be a broadening of their own boundaries until each nation maintains an ethical relationship with all peoples, regardless of race and nationality. The teacher must face the matter frankly. Especially with older children and to some extent with third-grade pupils the teacher will be able to compare the cultural level on which the behaviors of primitive peoples arose with the cultural levels of our present experience. There is a positive educational value in pointing out the historical development of ideals, attitudes, and standards of conduct.

If such is his policy he will find that both the weaknesses and the strong attributes of character have teaching value in so far as the boys and girls are helped to set up standards for their own daily life. When, for example, the group discusses a situation in which the Indians chose an undesirable form of behavior, the class should consider the better methods of meeting such a situation. In other instances, the behavior of the Indian was worthy of praise. Thus as children evaluate the conduct of the Indian, judging some actions good and some actions undesirable, they are gaining experience in evaluating

conduct and developing skill in choosing the good among that which is not good.

14. *Co-operative Project of High-School Civics Classes and City Officials*

The effort is being made in many schools to give to the classes in civics not only a knowledge of the processes of city government and management, and of the problems of community life, but experiences of co-operation in movements for civic improvement. An example of such a co-operative project in one of the New York City high schools is reported by Harold G. Campbell, deputy and associate superintendent of schools.

One group of high school students discovered that the poor children of the neighborhood were using a vacant lot which was littered with broken glass, ashes, broken furniture and the like, as a playground. These high school students made a proposition to the Street Cleaning Department that if they would come around there with their trucks and two or three helpers, the lot would be made into a desirable playground. As a result, one hundred boys and girls turned out with shovels and rakes, the street cleaning department sent two trucks and men and, inside of an hour, an eye sore was made into a beauty spot.³⁸

Such a project would seem to have a dual value. It gives opportunity for the members of the class to participate in a worth-while project for community betterment. It provides a motive and expression for altruistic endeavor. At the same time, it brings the students in touch with public officials in a way that gives an understanding of the functions of city departments and, also, a friendly appreciation for them. Such an attitude toward public officials and public work is needed to replace the ignorance and unfriendly feelings of many children.

³⁸ *Education*, LII (May, 1931), 507.

15. *Discussion of Current Events*

A junior high school boy in a Boston school brought in the following clipping:

Portugal to build a mid-ocean airdrome on the Island of Terceira—one of the Azores.

There was a discussion of the value of this airdrome to the aviators of all nations who might wish to cross the Atlantic. There followed a discussion of the values of co-operative enterprises among nations and of other movements which gave promise of profit to all people through international friendliness.³⁹

A discussion of Mussolini in a seventh-grade class in the Horace Mann School, Teachers College, Columbia University, under the leadership of two of the boys and Professor Roy W. Hatch, started with a dialogue between "Mussolini" and "Napoleon" about the former's plans for Italy.⁴⁰ From the beginning, class discussion moved toward an evaluation of Mussolini's life with the following conclusions being recorded on the blackboard:

THE GOOD MUSSOLINI HAS DONE

1. He has improved transportation—roads, railroads.
2. He has improved manufacturing and shipping.
3. There is better education for the common people.
4. He has encouraged colonization.
5. Put people to work; stopped strikes.
6. Improved agriculture by new methods.
7. He has renewed the old arts.

³⁹ Boston School Committee, *Citizenship through Character Development* (Boston: Boston Public Schools, 1930), p. 10.

⁴⁰ A stenographic report of this unit is found in R. S. Kimball and others, *Current Events Instruction* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929), pp. 215-21.

THE HARM MUSSOLINI HAS DONE

1. He has suppressed liberty.
 - a) Freedom of speech.
 - b) Freedom of the press.
2. He has gained the fear of foreign countries.
3. He has driven out many who disagree with his policies.
4. He doesn't live up to the League of Nations' ideas.
5. He has taken over all the power of the King and Parliament.
6. He will leave Italy in a bad way as no one can follow after him.⁴¹

16. *English Composition Topics with Implications in the Field of Character*

The following list of composition topics has been collected from various sources to illustrate the type of topics which may be used in high-school and junior high school English courses.⁴² Such compositions are of value chiefly because of the thought they may stimulate in the individual pupil. Some deal with topics which are personal enough that the teacher must be careful not to parade the compositions for the benefit of the class. Certain other topics are not of such a personal nature and there is a gain from the sharing of different opinions on the subject. It is a good plan to have an understanding with the members of the class that they are to be allowed to refuse to read compositions publicly whenever they so choose.

A spirit of tolerance and open-mindedness must prevail when the class considers matters of daily life. It does not seem necessary that the teacher convert every pupil to his viewpoint. Yet he should be free to express his views as the views of another but more mature member of the group. It should be his aim to help boys and girls to make their own decisions and to set their own standards after an unbiased consideration of the alternative choices or forms of conduct.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, p. 221.

⁴² The majority of these topics are quoted from the English syllabus of Pontiac Senior High School, Pontiac, Michigan.

Teachers report that the use of topics which are so closely related to the normal daily experience of the pupils often gives them an understanding of the inner life of their students which they did not previously possess. Often personal problems and conflicts are uncovered which should be given attention. In schools which have counselors or a psychological clinic, the English teacher should consult with those who offer such service whenever he uncovers needs among his students which demand special attention. If the service of specialists is not available, the teacher himself will want to offer such help to the student as he is able.

The composition topics are listed under certain general headings and with letters (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), etc., referring to the list of references contained among the appendixes at the back of the book.

1. Philosophical interests.

What makes conduct right or wrong? How did we get our standards of right and wrong conduct?⁴³

My philosophy of life. (Students were asked to write on this topic after they had read the philosophy of Larry Foster as it is recorded in the volume, *Larry, Thoughts of Youth*.)⁴⁴

⁴³ The teacher can anticipate a variety of answers to this question. Some will say that our standards have their origin in the accepted modes of conduct of people about us. Some will say they come from early home training. The church, its leaders, and the Bible are for many the basis for their choices and standards. Other standards are set by friends, the books we read, etc. Often conduct is well-established upon the basis of these influences, but still there come times when one is not certain as to the best form of conduct. After the standards of friends, the home, the church, etc., have been considered, there is still uncertainty as to the best course of action. It is then a help to consider the results of the alternative forms of conduct. If the act will bring injury or loss to one's self, to other people, or to the social group, then it is an undesirable form of conduct (unless, of course, the injury or loss is balanced by gains which are more significant). If it will bring benefits to the individual and to the others affected by it, then it is right.

⁴⁴ *Larry, Thoughts of Youth* (New York: Association Press, 1930), pp. 88-101.

2. Educational plans.

My favorite school subject and why I like it.

The values of history (English, algebra, etc.) in the high-school curriculum.

Is it practicable to take only "practical" subjects?

Should I take part in school clubs, athletics, and other school activities? What is their value?

Prepare an article such as might be written for a junior high school paper recommending a course of study for the first year in high school. Discuss the value of the course and each subject recommended.

Why do we have compulsory education laws?

Why I am or am not going to college.

My favorite college and why I have selected it.

My college course. Discuss favorite courses, the nature of each course, the colleges in which each is offered, the relative advantages and disadvantages of the college, etc. (*a*)

How much education does the average individual need?

Why go to school? Is it a waste of time? It is hard work to study day after day—Is it worth it? Is there any relationship between education and success in life?

What is the value of education? (*b*)

What has been done in recent years to make schools more worth while and interesting?

How a high-school graduate can continue his education even if he does not go to college.

3. Efficient methods of study.

Good study habits. (*c*)

How to study lessons which are not interesting. (*d*)

The value of doing something one does not want to do.

How to study English (or other subject in the curriculum).

Why students fail in their courses.

How to read efficiently. The values of being an efficient reader, the causes of good and bad reading, methods for improving one's skill in reading, etc. (*e*)

Are any of the old-fashioned ethical virtues an aid to good scholarship? (*f*)

Is cheating a good efficiency measure? Why or why not?

Does the program of our high school actually stimulate student thinking? (*g*)

If there were no examinations would students get more out of high school? (*h*)

The common mistakes of high-school students in preparing for and taking examinations. (*i*)

4. Problems of friendship.

Upon what basis should one select his friends? How important are differences in financial status, age, habits of boisterousness and loudness, differences of opinions and interests, etc.? (*j*)

Are there unfriendly friendships? (A teacher read Case IX in Morgan's *Case Studies for Classes in Civics*, and had the class evaluate the conduct of Edward.⁴⁵)

5. Essential courtesies and graces of social life.

Let the writer imagine that he is introducing a visitor from Mars or from the African jungle to American society, and tell him the things he needs to know about the courtesies and manners required at a dinner, a party, a school, on a street car, or when with adults. (*k*)

What courtesies has a girl a right to expect from a boy?

What courtesies has a boy a right to expect from a girl?

One eleventh-grade class prepared a handbook on courtesy such as might be of value to a high-school student. Members of the class were assigned to committees and each committee given responsibility for the preparation of one of the various chapters in the small volume. (*k*)

6. Emotional conflicts.

Mature students in one class read popular references and wrote compositions on the subject: "Practical Mental Hygiene for High School Students." These reports con-

⁴⁵ D. S. Morgan, *Case Studies for Classes in Civics*. Chicago: Laidlaw Bros., 1928.

sidered methods to eliminate worries, fears, anger, envy, etc. (1)

7. Relationships with the older generation.

Each student in one class interviewed one of his parents and reported his opinion on the following points: In what ways do you think young people of today have more opportunities than they did twenty-five years ago? Do you think they are making the most of these opportunities? What are the chief mistakes of young people today? What ideals would you recommend for modern youth?

A report was made to a high-school class of a study⁴⁶ made by a group of 120 students in another high school of criticisms which parents most often make of young people today. The following were found to be the most frequent criticisms:

- (1) They stay out too late at night.
- (2) "Wildness" or excessive hilarity.
- (3) Drinking.
- (4) Smoking.
- (5) They devote too much time to recreations such as shows, "dates," etc.
- (6) They spend too much money for recreations, clothes, and luxuries.
- (7) There is too much familiarity or freedom among boys and girls.

After the report of this study was made to the class the teacher explained that these criticisms did not apply to all students and that she wished each would select the one which he thought would apply to the greatest number of students in the local high school. The student then prepared a composition in which he gave his opinion as to the justice of the criticism and made his recommendations as to what should be done about it.

⁴⁶ K. L. Heaton, *A Study of the Recreational Life of High School Students*. Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago, 1931.

8. Problems of leisure time.

How can a high-school student use his leisure hours to enrich his life?

Read chapter vi in Purinton, *Efficient Living*,⁴⁷ and describe Purinton's plan for the making of an "Efficiency Amusement Chart."

Select some book, short story, or periodical article which has been read recently and which has seemed particularly worth while, and write a criticism of it in which you tell what it has contributed to your thinking or your attitude toward life.

What ideals for life have I found in what I have read this semester?

9. Current movements for social progress.

What can the ordinary man contribute to society?

Recommended solutions for current social issues:⁴⁸

- (1) War and its prevention.
- (2) Unemployment.
- (3) Financial crises.
- (4) Poverty.
- (5) Problems of taxation.
- (6) Co-operative control of industry.
- (7) Stabilization of banking.
- (8) Problems of labor and capital.
- (9) Political graft.
- (10) Lethargy of the average citizen in discharging the obligations of citizenship.
- (11) Assimilation of immigrant population.
- (12) The influence of motion pictures, newspapers, and radio upon public opinion.

⁴⁷ E. E. Purinton, *Efficient Living* (New York: Robert M. McBride & Co., 1916), pp. 147-69.

⁴⁸ For a more complete outline of problems the reader is referred to J. A. Hockett, *A Determination of the Major Social Problems of American Life*. Also, the illustration above of "A High School Course in Social and Economic Problems."

- (13) Problems incident to the large increase in school enrolment.
- (14) Crime prevention.
- (15) Juvenile delinquency.
- (16) Law enforcement.

10. Miscellaneous.

Teachers of tenth-grade English find that short case studies can be used for subjects in brief written and oral composition periods. The following are typical of those that are used:

- (1) A student who is capable of doing passing work cheats on the final examination. Should he be given another examination or be failed on the course? Give the reasons for your opinion.
- (2) A clerk gives you too much change when you pay for a purchase. What would you do?
- (3) A student in the tenth grade is able to do only passing work in his courses although he works very hard in preparing all assignments. He is discouraged and undecided as to whether he should quit school, attempt to finish high school, or start looking for a job and quit as soon as he secures one. What would you advise him to do? Give reasons for your advice.
- (4) Miss Reed was employed as a stenographer by the purchasing agent of a large corporation, and had been so employed for several months. At first she was very careful to get her work exactly right so that she could make a good impression and hold her job but as the weeks went by she became less exact in her work. Mr. King, her employer, had noticed that her work was less careful but since her mistakes were small ones he had not spoken to her about them. One Saturday, however, he dictated some letters that included special specifications and changes to make in an order. Miss Reed was not told of the importance of the letter and in her rush to get her work finished she made a few mistakes. The mistakes caused the firm the loss of several hundred

dollars. Mr. King was very angry and informed Miss Reed that if such a thing should occur again that he would no longer desire her services. Miss Reed thought that her employer was unjust because he was as much to blame as she was. In the first place, he had not told her to give special attention to the letter, and in the second place, he had allowed other mistakes to go through without complaint. Who was to blame and what should Mr. King have done?

17. *English Composition Topics To Aid in Vocational Adjustment*

The teachers of English in high school, particularly in the Junior and Senior years, have used their composition assignments to interest students in matters related to vocational choice.⁴⁹ Some of the topics were merely valuable in stimulating thought on the subject while others involved actual investigation of a phase of the subject preliminary to the writing of the report. The following list of suggestions was prepared for the use of the teachers. In instances where the students were required to read on their topic preliminary to writing, the list of references is also included. These references are to be found among the appendixes and are referred to by letters.

1. My favorite vocation and why I selected it.
2. What should a student know about a vocation before making a choice of his own life work? (a)
3. Select one of the vocations and write an article about it of the type that might be published in the school paper.⁵⁰

⁴⁹ These topics are copied from the English syllabus of Pontiac Senior High School, Pontiac, Michigan. The author is also indebted to C. J. Hyslup and the Virginia State Board of Education for some of the topics included in this outline which were first incorporated in a bulletin, prepared by Mr. Hyslup for the Virginia State Board of Education, entitled *How English Teachers Can Help in a Guidance Program*.

⁵⁰ In some classes the students were provided with an outline of the important points to be considered in securing information regarding a vocation.

4. What peculiar problems has a girl in the selection of a vocation? (*b*)
5. What personal characteristics make for success in a vocation? (*c*)
6. What causes a man to succeed in life? Is it (*a*) Pull? (*b*) Enthusiasm and ambition? (*c*) Good health? (*d*) Hard work? (*e*) Character and good habits? (*f*) Education? (*g*) Intelligence? (*h*) Such characteristics as loyalty, punctuality, concentration, thoroughness?
7. How important is it to select the right vocation? (*d*)
8. How important are health and vitality in determining vocational success? (*e*)
9. How important is intelligence? (*f*)
10. How important are special talents and a good temperament? (*g*)
11. How important is a good course of training? (*h*)
12. How important is a pleasing personality? (*i*)
13. How important is it to be ambitious and to be interested in achieving some purpose? (*j*)
14. How important in determining vocational success is good ethical character? (*k*)
15. Do good friends help one to succeed? (*l*)
16. Write an accurate report of an interview with some local person in regard to the importance of his occupation.
17. Describe a day's work of two men in a factory. One of the men is enthusiastic about his work; the other is not interested and considers it drudgery.
18. Write a description of a man (or woman) who would be a success as a salesman (or a lawyer, physician, stenographer, etc.)
19. Visit some man at work or some industry and describe your experience.
20. Debate: Resolved that there is greater need in our city for skilled manual workers than for workers in offices.
21. Debate: Resolved that it is necessary to select a vocation before graduating from high school.
22. Write a letter in which you apply for a position (Want Ads in the newspaper may be answered). (*m*)

18. *Kindergarten—First-Grade Curriculum*

The kindergarten has developed without hindering traditions and has been free to use a curriculum that seemed suited to the needs of the child. Not only have there been scattered units which have indicated the shift in center of interest, but the entire daily schedule has been planned with thought of preparing the child for participation in human life.

Two recent publications on the curriculum for kindergarten and first grade suggest the extent to which this emphasis is brought into these grades. The first of these volumes⁵¹ recommends the following phase in the curriculum:

1. Understanding social or community life.
2. Practice in expressing and communicating ideas—language, dramatization, drawing, and industrial arts.
3. Reflective problem-solving based upon problems of everyday life and school life.
4. Recreational activities to train for enjoyment in plays, games, festivals, music, stories, poetry, human life, and nature.
5. Forming health habits.
6. Civic-moral ideals and habits.
7. Understanding and use of numbers only in situations which make the use of numbers essential.
8. Oral and silent reading.
9. Beginnings in writing and spelling.

The curriculum outlined in another well-known publication⁵² was originally developed upon the basis of a study of the problems of adjustment of the pupils. The curriculum outlined in this volume was developed to assist the particular groups of children to improve their habits of conduct; their thoughts and

⁵¹ S. C. Parker and Alice Temple, *Unified Kindergarten and First-Grade Teaching*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1925.

⁵² Patty S. Hill and Others, *A Conduct Curriculum for the Kindergarten and First Grade*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1923. 123 pages.

feelings; their appreciation, ideals, and attitudes, as related to the situations of daily life. At the center of the time schedule is a work period which includes block building, manipulative toys, sand, industrial and fine arts, doll play, and household arts, and also necessary duties relative to the operation of the work period. The type of habits and skills that are desired as the result of these activities are:

Responsibility for self in hall and cloakroom.

Skill and courtesy in dealing with adults.

Ability to work independently and in co-operation with others.

Knowledge of colors, how to count, simple designs, table manners, etc.

Skill in pleasurable activities—playing games, stringing beads, use of tools, clay modeling, imitation of adult activities, caring for dolls, etc.

Safety precautions in use of tools, handling materials, use of household appliances, etc.

In addition to the work period the same emphasis upon the demands of daily life are emphasized in:

1. Lunch period.
2. Discussions and activities related to health and safety.
3. Musical expression and appreciation.
4. Play activities.
5. Picture study, selection, and mounting.
6. Language practice—story telling, discussion, carrying messages, dramatization, etc.
7. Library work.
8. Reading.
9. Writing.
10. Numbers—concepts of size and quantity, time schedules, learning to direct own activities by the clock, appreciation of the necessity for exact measurements, learning to count, etc.
11. Social studies.
12. Nature studies.
13. Excursions.

CHAPTER III

THE CHANGE OF THE CENTER OF INTEREST FROM "SUBJECT MATTER" TO "LIFE" (*Continued*)

This chapter is a continuation of the materials presented in chapter ii. It includes illustrations of the curriculum changes being made in the vocational subjects, in mathematics, home economics, the sciences, foreign languages, music, and art.

ILLUSTRATIONS WHICH SUGGEST THE CHANGING EMPHASIS (*continued*)

19. *A Study of the Personal Qualifications Which Make for Success in Commercial Vocations*

A high-school commercial department¹ of over seven hundred students worked together in making a study of the personal characteristics which most often prevent workers from being of the greatest usefulness in the various commercial vocations. A questionnaire was prepared by the members of the faculty with the advice of a group of individuals outside of the school staff who had had experience with such surveys. This questionnaire was designed to discover from the one who filled it out the qualities which he thought were most often the cause of failure on the part of typists, stenographers, executives, file clerks, and other office workers.

A list of former students of the high school who were holding commercial positions was prepared and students asked to take copies of the questionnaire to any of those with whom they were acquainted. Contact was made with the office managers

¹ Pontiac (Michigan) Senior High School, J. C. Springman, head of commercial department.

or personnel departments of the larger local industries, the leading bank, and two of the luncheon clubs. From these various groups were secured a total of 306 questionnaires which could be used, including both executives (owners, managers, supervisors, chief clerks, etc.) and those who held subordinate positions (stenographers, typists, file clerks, etc.).

As these questionnaires were turned in they were tabulated by members of various commercial classes, over sixty different students participating in this work. The findings were not entirely valid but were significant in that they called attention to the great variety of demands made upon the worker. Such items as "inability to meet people in a pleasing way," "laziness," "discourteousness," "unwillingness to do extra work," and "inability to co-operate with other employees" were considered very important.

When the study was completed, a complete report was made in each commercial class and time allowed for discussion of it. At the same time the students were given a self-rating scale upon which they could rate themselves on the same thirty-four qualifications used in the questionnaire. These rating scales were filled out without signature and primarily for the value that might be received by the student by applying the scale in his own personal analysis.

There is danger in such a unit as this that the discussion will be chiefly concerned with the value of certain abstract traits. Such an investigation should include the discussion of concrete situations involved in work adjustment. "What are some of the situations in which it is difficult to meet people in a pleasing way? What should be done in these situations?" "Why is it important to improve one's skill from year to year? How can this be done?" "What are some of the emergencies that may arise in the work experience? How can they be met? etc." The investigation of the causes for failure might well be followed by a second which would include a listing of the most

trying problems met by workers, and the gathering of suggestions as to the best method of meeting each.

20. *A Unit To Interest High-School Students in the Personal Qualities Essential in Industrial Pursuits*

A unit was introduced in the first semester of all courses offered in the industrial arts department of the same high school² the purpose of which was to interest students in the personal qualities which are essential in the various industrial pursuits. Five main steps were included in the unit as developed in each course. (1) In order to correlate the unit with the remainder of the course, it was introduced with a free discussion of the skills and knowledge essential in the particular vocation (the work of the mechanic in auto mechanics classes, draftsmen in mechanical drawing classes, etc.). (2) The first step was followed by an informal discussion of the personal qualifications which are essential. Such questions as the following were raised:

- a) What qualifications must a man have to be a good draftsman (mechanic, machinist, etc.) besides actual skill in his work?
- b) Let us suppose that two men have equal skill but differ in their personal characteristics or in the attitude they take toward their work. Is it possible that these personal characteristics or differences in attitude might make them differ in their value to an employer? How would these characteristics increase or limit their usefulness?
- c) What characteristics have you noticed among the students in our high school which would increase the value of these students when they get out into the industrial field? What characteristics have you noticed which will decrease the value of these students?

(3) Following the preliminary discussion each student was given a list of readings to be explored for additional suggestion on the subject. This list included books that contained dis-

² Pontiac (Michigan) Senior High School, E. C. Russell, supervisor of industrial arts.

cussions of the various vocations. Pupils in the classes in drafting would go through the discussions of drafting as a vocation in search of any ideas about the personal requirements of this particular type of work. In a similar way auto mechanics students read the discussions of mechanics, etc. There were also certain references in books and periodicals which gave general discussions of the qualities which contribute to success and failure in the industrial field. The following list of discussions was discovered during the first semester that the unit was used. Others could undoubtedly be added.

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21. *A Cultural Course in Industrial Education*

Another instance of the trend toward school activities centered in life interests is the course in industrial mechanics now given in a number of senior high schools primarily for its cultural rather than its vocational value. J. H. Trybom of the Detroit public schools states the purpose of such a course to be:

1. *Technical knowledge* pertaining to the understanding of tools, machine materials, operations and principles involved, with special reference to the needed applications to each class, group and individual concerned.

2. *Vocational knowledge* pertaining to the conditions, processes and relationships in present-day commerce and manufacture; and that this knowledge should be provided through concrete experience and related study.

3. *Occupational knowledge* pertaining to the nature of work, qualifications and training, labor conditions, health problems, future opportunities, and the like, in connection with the other studies as a basis for the intelligent choice of study and life work.³

These same three objectives were set up by A. H. Edgerton of the University of Wisconsin after interviewing over two hundred representatives of professional, commercial, and industrial interests.

The instruction deals with the place of each major industry in the growth of the city, the process of manufacturing from the raw materials, the organization of plants, and provides some experience with operation of common tools and machines.

The course is significant from the point of view of education for character because it is designed to give to students preparing for college some acquaintance with the nature and problems of industry, particularly with the problems which arise in human relations. Through visits to plants, through readings, and through direct experience with industrial processes, students may develop an appreciation of the place of the industrial worker in community life.

22. Home and Family Relationships Emphasized in Home Economics

A high-school course of study in home economics devotes time to "Home and Family Relationships" and to "Child Care." Some of the topics that are given consideration in these units are:

- a) Personal traits desirable for a worthy member of a household.
- b) Responsibilities of a high-school girl to her family.
- c) Responsibility of a high-school girl to her community.
- d) Factors necessary for a good home as—sound physical bases, desirable character, personality traits, mutual agreement, adequate income.

³ *Industrial Arts Magazine*, XIV (April, 1925), 129.

- e) Difference between a home and a house.
- f) From the life of some outstanding woman, as Jane Addams, Alice Freeman Palmer, Florence Nightingale, or from the reading of such a charming story as *Mother Mason* (E. S. Aldrich) discover the personal characteristics which contribute toward the making of a happy home.
- g) Consider the personal traits necessary in the home as determined by Dr. W. W. Charters and decide upon those traits of most importance for worthy home membership in a high-school girl.
- h) Make a list of home activities in which a high-school girl might be expected to participate for the happiness and success of the family.
- i) Select, plan, and perform some definite activity which will contribute to the happiness of some member of the family.
- j) Discuss what a high-school girl can do to develop such habits and attitudes in young children with whom she may be brought in contact, as—regularity, evenness of temper, cheerfulness, orderliness, truthfulness, courtesy, helpfulness, cleanliness.⁴

The same school system offers another course for high-school girls which is devoted entirely to the care of children.

23. *A Home Economics Project*

Ella Groenewold of Central Missouri State Teachers College reports a project which was worked out in a high-school class in home economics.

She set her problem in story form: "Edith Moore is eagerly planning a week-end visit to her one-time schoolmate, Mary Mason, who now lives in Kansas City. Edith has never been away from home, and she is afraid she may not know how to comport herself to appear charming in the eyes of her friend's family in a big city. Wouldn't it be fun to talk about things Edith should understand

⁴ Detroit Public Schools, *Course of Study in Home Economics: Home Science for High Schools* (Detroit: Board of Education, 1931), pp. 14-17.

and do to be a graceful and welcome guest?" And that was the beginning of the most spirited unit of the year.

First to be decided on was Edith's wardrobe. The discussion ended in the making of charts. Edith dressed for the train, Edith in her friend's home, Edith ready for a party, for church. Then the class discussed the other things that she should take with her. Miss P. (the teacher) brought her own bag to school and various toilet and other articles listed as necessary. She demonstrated packing and then let the girls try their hand. Very interesting to them was the use of paper to keep the dresses from wrinkling.

Next came good manners at table. The school dining table was set for an imaginary menu; and during the "pretend" meal various points were listed as important for Edith to know, such as to be ready on time, to chew with closed lips, to manage such things as soup and bread and butter correctly, to "like" everything on the table.

There would be a party, of course, and church on Sunday. Most important for Edith to know about seemed to be introductions, having a good time without being noisy and shouting with laughter, and being interested in all of Mary's friends rather than pairing off with any one. The class practiced introductions and natural responses, using any visitor to the class for practice. Good manners in public places received attention, too.

Mary's duties as hostess came in for attention. First the guest room clean and in order. The bed in the home-nursing room allowed for practice in bedmaking, including the study of sheets long enough to "stay put" on the bed. Each girl reported how she cleaned her own room, arranged the top and drawers of the dresser, and put the closet in order.

Edith's part in the care of the guest room and bathroom were also taken up point by point. The girls thought that this gave Edith an opportunity to impress Mary's mother with her habits of neatness. Edith's expression of appreciation of her happy time as she leaves, and later her short and graceful letter to her friends completed the unit.

While all this was under discussion, work in clothing construction was going on, the articles planned and made being an apron dress

to be worn as housedress or over a frock for protection, and a pajama suit or gown—both of them fitting in well with the discussions of Edith's visit.⁵

24. *Home Economics for Boys*

Many schools are finding that boys are interested in their home economics courses. If these courses are to deal with home management, child care, and related topics, then it is increasingly worth while for the brothers and future fathers to share in these courses. One writer has outlined a special course for boys which would seem to have promise of both interest and profit to them.⁶ The aim of this course should be "the establishment of happy satisfactory homes." The following topics would be covered in the syllabus: (1) Little emphasis would be put upon food selection and preparation. (2) In the study of clothing boys would be assisted in the selection of clothing, in planning a clothing budget, and be given an appreciation of the value of dressing correctly, neatly, tastefully, and economically. (3) Units on housekeeping would stress the man's duties in the care of the house. (4) The importance of physical and mental health to the individual and to the home would be given considerable emphasis. The boy should be acquainted with the demands of child-bearing and care upon the health of the mother, and also with the facts regarding the inheritance of physical and mental weaknesses. (5) The importance of and satisfactions from children in the home and the principles of child care. They should be given a knowledge "of the fundamental principles underlying mental hygiene and habit formation, of the importance of the environment during the early years of childhood, and of their responsibility in the

⁵ *Journal of Home Economics*, XXII (June, 1930), 478-79.

⁶ J. A. Starrak, "Homemaking Course for Boys," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXII (June, 1930), 451-57.

creation of the proper environment in the home.”⁷ It was suggested that this information on psychology and mental hygiene might be of greater significance to the average boy if taught as it applies to the boys’ own lives rather than from the angle of child training. (6) The financial obligations of family life, budgeting and economy, and ideals of home life which will make boys satisfied with modest living. (7) The factors which should be considered in the choice of a mate: “Tastes and ideals, mental and spiritual attitudes,” “compatibility of temperament and personality,” “equal intelligence and education,” “religious belief,” and the family characteristics of the girl’s family. (8) The physical and the psychological facts concerning reproduction and sex. (9) “And lastly . . . teach our young people to idealize marriage above courtship. We have idealized courtship too much and marriage not enough in the past, and it is high time to change the emphasis.”⁸

It is obvious that many of Starrak’s suggestions are widely separated from the conventional interests of education and character education. If, however, one of the major aims of education is to prepare boys and girls for worthy home membership, then it would seem that preparation must be made for some of the difficult problems of courtship and marriage, of home life and the rearing of children.

25. *Relating Arithmetic to Life*

That the new emphasis in education is touching the field of mathematics is suggested by an experience reported by Helen J. Piper, an elementary supervisor in Lynn, Massachusetts. She had been visiting a sixth-grade class during the arithmetic period and had tried to interest the teacher of the class in the possibility of relating the arithmetic to life. Miss Piper tells of the result of her visit.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 455.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 457.

Before leaving the class, I mentioned that I hoped to have an apartment of my own next year, and wondered if they would care to help select and furnish it, naming the amount I could afford for general living expenses. I then hurried away to an appointment and completely forgot the whole matter until three days later, when a frantic principal called me on the phone to say that unless I could help her to stop the sixth grade in their mad career, I might have the sheriff knocking at my door. An explanation revealed the fact that almost before the door had closed on the day of my visit, the pupils had demanded that they be allowed to form committees immediately for the purpose of finding the solution of my problem.

There were apartment and furniture committees; committees on linen, silver, and kitchenware; committees for personal and general expenses, and also one for determining if I could afford such luxuries as a car, a radio, or an electric refrigerator. . . .

The final outcome of this activity was a very attractive illustrated booklet, containing accurate data, logically arranged, on what I could afford to have for a home. Accompanying the report of each committee, was a letter telling why certain choices had been made, and stating that in case I really took an apartment, one and all stood ready to help me buy the furnishings and arrange them in the new home.⁹

In commenting upon the results of this project, Miss Piper makes the following statement:

We are one and all guilty, for we have been so concerned about covering the course or completing the book that we have had little or no concern that children are learning to make decisions, weigh values, save and spend wisely; in other words, we have failed to recognize the value of social utility as a basis for the selection of subject matter in arithmetic, and the importance of keeping meaning back of practice.¹⁰

26. *An Arithmetic Class Studies Investments*

The pupils in a sixth-grade arithmetic class decided to make a study of the investment which a parent makes in his

⁹ *Education*, LII (February, 1932), 313-14.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 314.

children. First the class made a list on the blackboard of the items of cost. What does food for a boy or girl cost each week? Clothing? What does it cost to pay one child's share of the rent? What money does it take for shows, candy, Christmas and birthday presents, etc.? It took some time to secure necessary information and to make the necessary calculations. Monthly rents had to be reduced to a weekly basis, family food costs had to be divided so as to find the cost per person, the weekly cost of clothing had to be figured from a total annual expenditure.

A second list was made which included things parents give to their children which cannot be measured in terms of money: hours of care, hard work, deeds of kindness, acts of self-denial, careful planning, etc.

From this unit there came an informal discussion of the ways in which children can reduce the amount of money which must be expended upon them. Attention was given to toys which are lost or broken, clothes which wear out too soon or get needlessly dirty, caps and other articles which are lost. It was also suggested in the discussion that children are sometimes unreasonable in their demands and also not careful to express gratitude for what they receive.

The teacher finished the unit with a story from *Guideposts to Citizenship* by Finch.¹¹ This is the story of a sixth-grade boy, Clarence, who thought his parents should pay him for every act of service or accomplishment. At the same time he was very slow to notice what others did for him without themselves expecting payment. One night he sat down in his own attractive little bedroom at the desk his father had recently purchased for him and wrote a note which he placed at his father's plate at the dinner table. The note read like this:

¹¹ C. E. Finch, *Guideposts to Citizenship* (New York: American Book Co., 1927), pp. 129-31.

Father owes Clarence:

For running errands.....	\$.25
For daily practice of music lessons.....	.30
For high marks on monthly report card.....	.50
Extras.....	.10
Total.....	<u>\$1.15</u>

At his plate the next morning Clarence found the \$1.15 and with it a note which read:

Clarence owes Father:

For three good meals every day.....	nothing
For clothes and shoes.....	nothing
For doctor's bill during long illness.....	nothing
For room and furnishings.....	nothing
For books and playthings.....	nothing

Total that Clarence owes Father.....nothing

The teacher must guard against unnecessary prying into the financial affairs of the homes from which pupils come. Such a unit as that described above may be followed without danger or it may be the cause of misunderstanding on the part of parents. If the pupil goes home with the question, "What does the food for the average eleven-year-old boy cost for a month?" there will be no objection, but there may be misunderstanding if Johnny says, "Teacher wants me to find out how much money you spent last month for my food." The answer to the first question will be just as valuable and does not carry the dangers of the second form of inquiry. Parents do not resent the interest of the school in the general demands of life and are usually pleased to be able to share their information, but many of them resent needless demands for specific information about the home and its operation.

27. *The Sciences*

The shift in the science curriculum toward a content of greater value in daily life is a dual one. In the first place, there is the trend toward "Applied Chemistry." "Household Physics," and other courses that have immediate application to the operations of processes and appliances used in the daily routine. Of greater significance from the standpoint of character education is the effort through science courses to develop a skill in the scientific method of problem-solving that can be used in other types of problematic situations. It has been hoped that the objective, fact-finding, search for truth that is the practice in the laboratory could be the basis for a higher morality; that skill in solving problems in physics and chemistry might, if properly handled, be a preparation for the solving of social and personal problems.

As a matter of fact, there is no assurance that participation in a science class does automatically prepare the pupil to use the scientific method in the solution of the problems of daily living. Curtis has conducted experiments in science classes and tested the ability of students to put into use the scientific attitude. In some classes, periods of discussion (brief periods totaling about two hours time) were devoted to the application of the scientific principle. Newspaper clippings with false deductions, superstitions, and the struggles of scientists against tradition and narrow-mindedness were subjects of thought. In the other classes the students received the same instruction in science without the brief periods in which consideration was given to the application of the principles of science to other fields. Curtis says:

The relatively low scores, in schools . . . who were taking the regular course in general science but who were not receiving any special training in scientific attitudes, indicates that scientific attitudes (as measured by the test) are not developed by ordinary class work to an extent comparable with that secured by devoting

a small amount of time to definite instruction in the scientific attitude.¹²

28. *Developing World-Friendship through Foreign Language Classes, Geography, History, etc.*

Bruno Lasker's *Race Attitudes in Children*¹³ suggests that teachers of modern languages have many opportunities to stimulate friendly feelings toward the people of other lands. To read the literature of France, Germany, or Spain often gives an appreciative interest. From this interest students have been led to find out more about the country through reading, through personal contact with immigrant groups, or correspondence with children in the foreign land.

Lasker also suggests¹⁴ opportunity for developing world-friendship through language and literature, fiction and biography, English, history, geography, civics, and ethics courses. Although it is not considered possible to solve problems of race antagonism through a change in the curriculum if a spirit of friendliness to other races is not reflected in the administration of the school and in the attitude of the teacher, yet the curriculum is one of the influences which may give rise to racial antagonism or good will. The curriculum materials in many instances are unfriendly to other peoples with exaggerated accounts of peculiar characteristics, or with emphasis upon the wrongs and mistakes of these people and a neglect of the contributions they have made to the world, or with undue effort to convince children of the superiority of the United States in ability and achievement. New materials are coming into the curriculum which refer to the achievements of the negro, the Italian, and the Japanese. Teachers are leading

¹² Francis D. Curtis, *Investigations in the Teaching of Science* (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Sons & Co., 1926), pp. 115-16.

¹³ Pp. 313-15 (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1929).

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 294-338.

their children not to fear but to appreciate the value of certain differences in other peoples. The variety of origins of the population in America should give to it richness and strength. Lasker also suggests that the curriculum should help students (at least high-school students) to appreciate the unfriendly propaganda of motion picture, press, and speakers, and to be on their guard against the influence of such.

29. *Relating Music to Life-Situations*

Creative music relates this part of the curriculum to life-situations. Children express their longings, their satisfactions, and even their problems in song. In the dramatization of stories they may use song as well as conversation to express the thoughts of the characters. A group of eleven-year-old children¹⁵ dramatized a legend of Charlemagne. Each of the leading characters was characterized by an original song, composed by the children to express their idea of the type of personality possessed by each of these individuals. Such songs demanded thoughtful consideration of the personality of each character, a discussion of information about the type of ideals and life of the individual, and the composition of music and words to represent the attitudes and conduct of the character.

In elementary grades simple bits of song often grow out of informal conversation about problems of living. After the children have talked about the problem and come to a decision about the best course of action in such situations, they express their thought in words and music. One rainy day a group of third-grade children were in an ill-humor. The teacher told them a story¹⁶ about a group of children who were

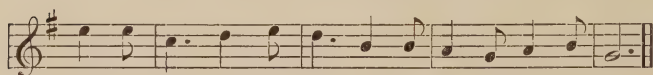
¹⁵ Reported by Ellen W. Steele and Rosemary Lilland of Junior School, Rosemary Hall, Greenwich, Connecticut (Progressive Education Association, *Creative Expression*, ed. Gertrude Hartman and Ann Shumaker [New York: John Day Co., 1932], pp. 126-29).

¹⁶ "The Traveling Circus," in the volume *Knights of Anytown* by Jeanette E. Perkins (Boston: Pilgrim Press, 1923), pp. 98-109.

irritable and unhappy on such a day and developed a plan to relieve their feelings. The teacher suggested that there ought to be something they could do to make the class more cheerful and there followed a period of discussion. It was decided that they would all be happier if they did one of the following: (1) if each busied himself with something that he enjoyed doing, or (2) if each did something to make another happy. Among the suggestions were: little things to beautify the room, washing the top of desks, making gifts to take home, making little desk-reminders with the words: "This is a cheerful place to live—Let's all be happy today." Following this discussion each child was allowed to busy himself as he pleased. Two of the girls decided to write songs, as an expression of what they had gained from the discussion. One of the songs¹⁷ was as follows:



When the day is rain - y And when the sun does-n't shine

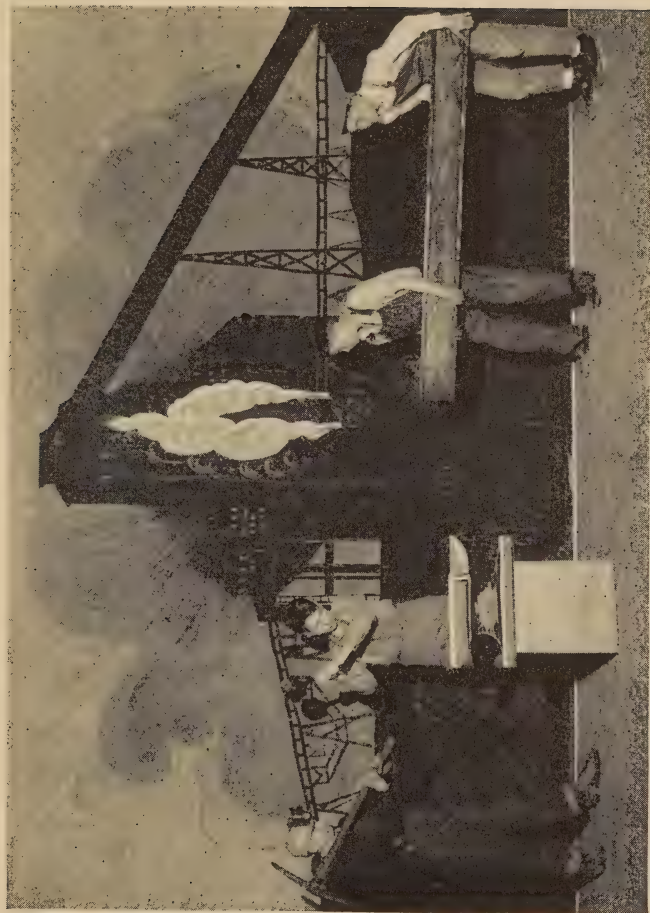


We could make some-one hap - py By be - ing ver - y kind!

Children also dramatize musical selections as expression of life-interests. This illustrates another evidence that the music curriculum is being related to daily interests of life. A rather striking example was a dramatization of the "Anvil Chorus" from *Il Trovatore* presented by a group of sixth-grade boys.¹⁸ These boys were to present a scene in a pageant to represent

¹⁷ By Babe Ruth Goldsby, Wisner School, Pontiac (Michigan). Reported by Mrs. Dorothy Peterson.

¹⁸ Portion of a historical pageant, "Our Heritage," produced by Crofoot School, Pontiac, Michigan. Miss Florence Herrington, principal.



DRAMATIZATION OF THE "ANVIL CHORUS" AS AN INTERPRETATION OF THE WORK
OF THE MANUAL LABORER

the toil of the manual laborer. They chose the "Anvil Chorus" with its beauty and strength, and its touch of monotonous repetition. The acting consisted of the passing across the stage, in the slow rhythm of the musical selection, of various types of workers: miners, mechanics, carpenters, ditch diggers, etc. To the boys who participated, the value consisted particularly in the discussion periods in which the plans for the dramatization were considered and in the associations set up in their mind between the musical selection and the attitude toward work that had been associated with it.

30. *Correlated History and Art Project with Emphasis upon Appreciation for the Church*¹⁹

The differing religious heritages of the people which form our population have made it unwise to teach sectarian doctrines and beliefs of religion in our public schools. It is an aim of the public schools, however, to introduce children to the influences which have contributed to social progress, and no study of the development of civilization is complete without recognition of the church as an institution and as a central interest in the life of mankind. Often in the study of history, particularly in the study of the Middle Ages, the church is seen primarily as a political influence, and this picture is often not the most pleasing one.

In order to emphasize one of the more pleasing aspects of the church during the Middle Ages it was suggested to a group of sixth-grade teachers that they correlate their work in history and their work in art and make a study of the cathedrals and other church buildings of the period. From this study there developed several interesting projects.

One class started by reading about different famous church buildings, by hunting up pictures of them, discussing them

¹⁹ Developed in co-operation with the intermediate supervisor and Mrs. Genevieve Helmer, supervisor of art, Pontiac.

with the art teacher, etc. Then the members of the class went to visit a very beautiful church in a nearby community where they could see some of the architectural features about which they had studied, hear the organ played, and talk with the custodian who guided them through the building. The class then started plans for the construction of a model cathedral. Detailed study was made of the type of doors, windows, building materials, and other details of medieval structures. During the period of construction the teacher told some of the stories of world-famous church buildings, the circumstances of their construction, the length of time required, the spirit of those who built them, and stories of heroism associated with their construction. When the building was completed it was not elaborate but represented a genuine understanding of some of the characteristics of such buildings.

In some of the other classes they constructed reproductions of some of the famous cathedral windows or an interior view of a cathedral. In one school an incident occurred which suggests the enthusiasm with which the children entered into their project. Several weeks after the study of cathedrals was completed the class was taken out-of-doors by the art teacher, to model in the snow. Each pupil was permitted to make anything he desired. Two groups selected cathedrals as models for their work.

These projects were developed during the fall semester and in some instances they developed as part of the plans for the Christmas season. Interior scenes, cathedral models, and windows contributed to the setting for various programs. Other groups worked out dramatizations as the main part of their project, selecting stories which were related to the interest in cathedrals. Two of Raymond MacDonald Alden's stories, "The Hunt for the Beautiful" and "Why the Chimes Rang,"²⁰

²⁰ Both of these stories are from Raymond MacDonald Alden, *Why the Chimes Rang and Other Stories*. Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1924.

and another story, "The Chiseled Face," from a collection *The Children's Story Garden*,²¹ were found to be suitable.

Perhaps it is well to add a word of caution for the teacher who may in using such projects have trouble in avoiding discussions which will accentuate religious differences. The teachers whose work is reported above were careful to include



RHEIMS CATHEDRAL IN THE SNOW

pictures and stories which represented a variety of religions. Buildings of worship such as college chapels which are undenominational in nature were included. There is not time to make a detailed study of the religious beliefs of different faiths and nationalities as the church buildings are considered, and such a study does not seem necessary if the project is limited to the architectural features of the buildings, except in regard

²¹ *The Children's Story Garden*. J. B. Lippincott Co., 1920.

to the symbolism represented in the structure. The children are not likely to be interested in the complicated symbols. They will be interested in the life of some of the characters whose statues may be found. Most of them will already know that the cross is the Christian symbol representing the unselfish death of Jesus, that the Star of Solomon found in the Jewish synagogue is the royal seal of King Solomon who built the first great Jewish temple, and that the various symbols of ancient Greek and Roman temples are representative of the various gods to whom the buildings were dedicated.

CHAPTER IV

UTILIZING LIFE-INTERESTS BROUGHT INTO CONSCIOUSNESS IN THE ROUTINE OF TEACHING

An attempt has been made in the preceding chapter to illustrate some of the ways in which the teaching of social sciences, arithmetic, English or any other phases of the curriculum can be modified to enrich the life of the child. In this section a different, though closely related, opportunity to bring a character emphasis into the classroom is to be considered.

MARGINAL PROBLEMS IN REGULAR SUBJECTS

Life is a unit and it is very difficult to segregate any part of the teaching program from the total life experience. Often in the processes of a course in science, for example, interests are aroused which are of tremendous personal significance to pupils but which can hardly be classified as biology or physics. If the teacher is a slave to his syllabus and too busy to interrupt the progress of instruction in science, these interests are easily dismissed as irrelevant. The average teacher is sufficiently interested in her pupils as living, growing personalities that she is loath to let such matters be passed over as outside the range of interest.

It is still true, particularly in the senior high school, that there are definite course requirements and that there is all too little time to cover even the basic essentials. Lacking the power or technique of Joshua, we are not able to increase the length of the teacher's day in order that he may have more time to render wider service to his group. Undoubtedly, many will say as they read the illustrations which follow:

"That is all very nice but I do not have the time to do it with *my* schedule!" In spite of this very just complaint, we present the paragraphs that follow, with the simple comment: "This is what teachers in typical schools and with typical demands upon their time have done."

METHODS USED TO MEET MARGINAL PROBLEMS

Personal Conferences with Students

A high-school class in English was discussing the relative merits of short stories found in various qualities of periodicals. A student raised the question: "What is wrong with *Whiz Bang* and magazines of that type?" The class was immediately alert and desirous of a complete discussion. The teacher did not feel justified in interrupting an all too brief period of time which was allotted to the study of short stories to give adequate consideration to this problem but she set an hour after school when she would be willing to meet with all who wished to talk about the matter. Three or four pupils appeared at the appointed time. The teacher said that she was not an authority on the reasons why certain magazines are read, but that she was willing to share any information she had with them. She started the discussion by asking whether the students thought the reading of such magazines might be harmful. One of the students said that they told stories about things parents did not want talked about. Another said that they left a "bad taste in his mouth" because he could not get the stories off his mind. Still another said that he thought there were other things to read that might be more worthwhile, and that there was not time to read everything. These suggestions were discussed freely without the teacher expressing her opinions. Her questions encouraged frank and serious consideration. By way of conclusion, the teacher said:

I think you have already given a good answer to Paul's question. There is only one thing that I can add. All normal people are in-

terested in the sex life and are naturally curious about it if they are not informed. Some publications are written to exploit this normal interest. They even print disgusting jokes about a very beautiful side of life. I understand that students who have been given an understanding of the functions of sex are not so much interested in magazines which are written to arouse curiosity and interest in this aspect of life. There have been some studies of the reading interests of high school students that show this. If I was curious about the sex life, I would not go to such a publication for my information but would go to one of my parents or to a very close friend and ask him to tell me all about this matter. This would give me more and better information.

A class in business arithmetic became interested in bank failures and reports of dishonesty on the part of bank officials. On several occasions questions had been raised and one day one boy said, "It would not be so hard to fix the figures in bank records, why should not a fellow take a chance?" The boy seemed so sincere in his statement that the teacher made an occasion to talk with him about the matter during a vacant period. An opportunity was suggested to the teacher by a magazine article which he chanced to read, which said that the country was suffering badly from a lack of business confidence due to the dishonest record of business men and bankers. The teacher handed this article to the boy with the comment, "Read this over and come down the eighth hour and tell me what you think of it." The boy came down with a carefully worked out defense for his own viewpoint, but it was obvious that for the first time he had taken time to think of the social consequences of dishonest business practices. The teacher decided that it would be foolish to argue with this boy and that he had better let him work out the matter for himself. When the boy's comments were finished, the teacher made no rebuttal but said, "Do you like this kind of articles? If you do, I will bring them down from time to time." The boy was interested and the teacher's method of handling gave him a

different feeling toward the teacher. After the next article, he approached the teacher with the question, "What do you really think, does it pay in the long run to be honest in business?" Then by questions and comments, the boy's attention was directed to the social effects of a loss of confidence in the integrity of business men, to the loss to society because of dishonest acts, and to the cost of maintaining law enforcement machinery to protect society from more dishonesty. The effects upon the individual were considered; the tendency for one anti-social act to lead to another, and the loss in self-respect and peace of mind which accompanies a violation of one's highest standards.

Arranging Valuable Contacts for Pupils with Individuals Who Can Give Them Aid

The teachers who used the list of composition topics suggested in chapter ii¹ found that through the compositions they were discovering much about the personal conflicts of their boys and girls. The agreement was made that whenever they discovered problems which demanded such handling, they were to refer the cases to the department of pupil adjustment in the school system.

A high-school teacher discovered that several of her students were disturbed by certain fallacies of popular publications on "psychology" and a superficial knowledge of certain factors limiting the possibilities of personal development. She arranged conferences for these students with one of the school supervisors who had a rather wide knowledge of psychology.

Taking Time in Class for the Consideration of Related Problems

Many teachers take time in regular class periods to consider vital student interests. Sometimes very brief discussions from time to time are all that is necessary, as illustrated in

¹ Pp. 48-54.

paragraphs (1), (2), (3), and (4) below. Sometimes merely the sharing of knowledge which the teacher possesses is sufficient as in samples (5) and (6) below. Sometimes new interests can be introduced into the teaching situation which will be helpful in meeting the concomitant need. Refer to paragraphs (7) and (8).

1. In the discussion of Emerson's essays, a teacher reports that many problems arose in class as to the standards of life and proper interpretation of the meaning of life. The teacher was not trained in philosophy or ethics but hoped to make these discussions helpful. She sought the help of a friend who had studied in this field and was able to give a very helpful interpretation. A plan was formed by which the teacher carried the questions that arose in the class to this individual and brought back to the class his contribution to the solution of each.

2. It is a common practice to have pets in kindergarten and primary classrooms to arouse the interest of pupils in their habits and in the care that they need. When it is not possible actually to have birds or animals in the room, teachers sometimes help their children to prepare a feed-box for birds or animals outside the window in order that they may have a measure of experience in the care of animal life. This care for animals might add only to the scientific knowledge of pupils, but by the expenditure of a little additional time the experience has many opportunities for character education. (*a*) It provides opportunity for many acts of service which the youngest of boys and girls can do. They soon learn that the pets must be fed regularly and without omission, that food must be apportioned accurately, that there is opportunity to lighten the burden of care by co-operation providing everyone does his share, and that it is necessary to continue faithful service after the first wave of enthusiasm has passed away. It would be easier for the teacher to care for the pet herself

but the wise teacher will not. (*b*) The pet is often the object of both the cruelties and kindnesses of the children, and the cruel child soon finds that the class is displeased with him. Some teachers have found that this interest in the kind treatment of an animal or bird prepared the way for a very constructive series of discussions of kindness to fellow-pupils, and to younger children in the home. (*c*) Intimate contact with animal and bird life tends to develop greater appreciation for the skill and beauty of the pet and an interest in observing other forms of life. These interests can be explored with profit. (*d*) The opportunity arises for a natural discussion of the process of reproduction and questions related to sex, which is not met many times in the educational experience of the child.

3. Three Oregon communities—The Dalles, Ashland, and Newberg—introduced regular instruction in biology in the elementary grades. One of the values reported from this instruction was an opportunity to give essential information about the processes of reproduction. The following conversation in one of the classes is reported by one of the teachers and illustrates the natural way in which the subject of sex came to the attention of the children:

The 3A children were observing how a spider made its web. One of them asked, "Where does she get so much web?" Some suggested she had a spool of thread in her abdomen, but the rest objected that one spool would be used in a short time. It was finally decided that she had a factory inside her body where food was converted into web. Were there other animals that made food into something as the spider made web? Hens made eggs. So did spiders. Birds made eggs. Rabbits made eggs (?). Here we struck a snag, for some wise little chap said, "Oh, no, rabbits don't lay eggs."

"They do, too," said another.

"They do not. That's only a story."

"They do so. I've seen them."

"I've seen 'em, too," said another boy. "They're hard boiled and blue."

Nods of affirmation went around the room and the boys looked to me to settle the difficulty.

"Well, boys, you're both right," I explained. "Rabbits do have eggs, but they are very small—so small that they could easily be lost. The mother doesn't want to lose them so she keeps them in a nest in her body instead of laying them and then sitting on them in a straw nest. In this little body nest they keep warm until they grow into rabbits. At Easter we like to think of rabbits and eggs and have made a beautiful story about how the mother rabbit comes and lays pretty colored eggs in a nest we have made for her. But you see we never could find tiny real rabbit eggs so we borrow some from the chickens and boil them and color them."

During the year's work with this class, I did not notice the least unwholesomeness as we studied fertilization and reproduction in several animals.²

4. Lasker's *Race Attitudes in Children*³ gives the following account of how a teacher was able to use an interest in languages to solve a problem of antagonism toward the Jewish race:

Early in the year the boys started teasing one of the Jewish boys who, it happens, is one of the most popular children in the group, by calling after him in the yard and elsewhere, "Geney the Sheeny." (His name is Eugene.) Because of his popularity, I thought at first it would pass over without comment from me, and I did not like to attack it directly for fear of hurting Eugene.

It did seem to me, however, that it would be a help if the whole question could be brought out in serious discussion, and the opportunity soon arose in connection with the study of German. One of the Jewish boys was so good at it that I asked him if he knew

² American Social Hygiene Association, *Biology in the Elementary Schools*, Publication No. 576 (New York: American Social Hygiene Association, 1928), p. 23.

³ Bruno Lasker, *Race Attitudes in Children* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1929), p. 320.

Yiddish, and he said he did. This led to a discussion of how the Yiddish language came to be so like German and consequently to the whole story of persecution of the Jews in the Middle Ages. Finally, in the course of the discussion, upon my remark that it always seemed to me that the medieval nobles had a good deal of jealousy and fear mixed up in their feeling toward the Jews, Eugene suddenly gave a personal turn to the discussion by exclaiming laughingly, "Aha, Frankie, you're jealous of me, that's why you call me a Sheeny!" This brought protests from others at once. "But, Eugene, you're not a Jew," which he answered by insisting on his pure Jewish descent. This led to further discussion of Jewish history and the age of their civilization as compared with European. All entered into it seriously and with interest, and there has been no further manifestation of any race attitude at all.

5. A recently published bulletin on the teaching of reading makes the following suggestion regarding the problems that sometimes arise when pupils are allowed to select their own reading:

The teacher should never indicate horror, surprise, or condemnation at the revelation of the state of a pupil's reading health. The fact that he has never read a book through, that Tom Slade is his hero, and Nick Carter's world is his Utopia should be accepted as situations offering opportunities for individual study and growth. The adolescent who haunts the corner store for the cheap magazines that make an Alfred Noyes's highwayman out of every thing and that gild with tawdry tinsel all the dangers and temptations that beset modern youth from within and without . . . presents a serious problem and requires skill and sympathy from the teacher. Some suggestive ways to handle various situations:

ALGER BOOKS

TEACHER (in conversational tone): You have read several of them, haven't you? Aren't they alike? Isn't there always a poor boy who is very noble and who rises to fortune while a wealthy boy loses out? As a matter of fact, *are* poor boys always noble? Are

wealthy people always villains? If you like to read about boys who overcome difficulties and succeed, you will enjoy this one (holding it up) *Stephen's Last Chance* by M. Ashmum.

WILD WEST; TWO GUN MEN

TEACHER: If you like stories of bravery and quick-thinking, especially in the west, you will enjoy this one, *The Young Trailers* by Altsheler. It makes the book more interesting to know that it is quite true to life and many a young scout like Henry Ware had just such adventures as his.

This book, *Daniel Boone, Wilderness Scout* by S. E. White and this one, *Buffalo Bill and the Overland Trail* by E. L. Sabin tell about real men who matched their wits against the Indians in many a thrilling adventure when our country was new.

CHEAP LOVE STORIES

TEACHER: Do you see anything in these stories that isn't true to life? Do things really turn out as the magazines say they do? How far do the newspaper reports agree with the stories? If you like romance where you get acquainted with the heroine when she is just about your age, you will enjoy this book (holding it up), *An Old Fashioned Girl* by Louisa Alcott.⁴

6. The teacher of a social science class found that students were very antagonistic toward the city and school administration because they had read the campaign material of a very reactionary political candidate. Without taking sides in the political controversy, he suggested that it would be interesting to consult a list of the expenditures of the preceding year and made these lists available to them. The members of the class found for themselves that the facts had been greatly distorted.

7. Miss Mary Chaplin Shute of Teachers College, Boston, says that the kindergarten teacher finds that as dolls are brought in or made in kindergarten some children select all

⁴ Detroit Public Schools, *Literature Methods and Materials for Slow-Learning Groups* (Detroit Board of Education, 1930), pp. 31-32.

those "whose complexions fail to conform to Nordic standards" for the positions of cooks or chauffeurs. She says that the teacher has sometimes found very pretty types of colored dolls and placed them in the classroom, dressed as prettily as any of the other dolls, with the result that the dolls are accepted and mothered with just as much affection as the white dolls. She suggests that the doll representing other races might be the agent which would foster friendly feelings.⁵

8. A teacher in a high-school social science department became impressed with the lack of intelligent planning of time by the typical student in the school. He suggested to the students that they undertake a special project as a basis for the discussion of community life. Each student was asked to prepare for two weeks a daily time-activity schedule in which he would keep a record of what was done during each hour of the day. These reports were tabulated to secure various types of information. The average number of hours spent on school work, recreation, home duties, church and service activities, etc., was computed. Some of the students who spent much time on recreation found that they were spending more than the average, some found that they were not spending the average amount on school or home duties, etc. Then a list was made of the types of home duties performed by different individuals. This was the basis for discussion of the co-operative nature of the home and the functions of different members in the home. A third tabulation included a listing of the forms of recreation in which the group had participated. In the discussion that followed it was discovered that many had no form of physical activity to offset the daily routine of mental effort. Some had a varied recreational program while others participated in a very narrow range of interests. Another tabulation was made of activities of students which con-

⁵ *Childhood Education*, for February, 1926, p. 273.

tributed to community betterment. After the discussion of these and other forms of activity, each member of the class prepared an outline of the activities that should have a place in the weekly schedule of the average high school student. It was interesting how often students emphasized in this outline those activities which had not in the past been a part of their program.

CHAPTER V

METHODS OF TEACHING WHICH PROVIDE CO-OPERATIVE GROUP EXPERIENCE

PROGRESSIVE METHODS AND CHARACTER

In the two yearbooks on character education which have recently been published by the National Education Association, and in other writings on the subject, there seems to be a feeling that the so-called "progressive" movements in teaching are valuable in relation to character education. They are considered valuable because they give pupils an opportunity for purposive, social activity.

It has been thought that character is developed when boys and girls have an opportunity to co-operate with one another and with their teachers in the initiation of their units of work, when they have an opportunity to execute plans which they have themselves made, when they experience success and failure in their own plans. It is possible to develop character in almost any type of classroom activity which involves group co-operation in significant enterprises, which gives to the pupils practice in working together; practice in making decisions, practice in solving differences and conflicts, practice in making adjustment to the interests of others in the group.¹

George A. Coe summarizes the characteristics of the progressive movement which have made it a development of the character emphasis in education:

¹ This chapter deals with progressive education as method. Space does not permit a discussion of some of the controversial aspects of the movement. Some leaders are chiefly interested in the self-expression of the individual, others in social reconstruction. Perhaps the writers' own viewpoint is nearer the view of those who hope to develop both individuality and interest in social reconstruction, through the teaching process.

First, it has begun to put action—not static virtues—into its proper place as the true index of a human being.

Second, it conceives of human action, even in childhood, as thinking-control of natural resources and of social relations. Unthinking conformity or acquiescence with respect even to good principles is not regarded as sufficient.

Third, progressive education has discovered how, by one and the same process, to develop both the individuality of the pupil and cooperation of pupils with one another, with their teachers, and with surrounding society.

Fourth, continuity between the school and the encompassing social order is being achieved in a degree unknown to old-type schools. This is paradoxical, for progressive education is inherently a challenge to our handling of our customs, as conventional education is not. The secret of the matter is that thinking and objective-mindedness are developed and that these lead on to understanding of social processes, participation in them, and therefore readiness to improve them. . . .

If a visitor to a progressive school asks, "What is your method of character education?" This is the reply that he receives: "You can see for yourself that these pupils are law-abiding. Not through fear or compulsion, not as an act of submission, but through convictions and habits that are being born within happy cooperation with one another and with their teachers. When a fault is committed, or a conflict occurs, they face their situation and study a way out. They are having the experience of guiding conduct by thought, and therefore of both making rules and obeying them. When a job is undertaken, they stick to it until either it is finished or a real reason arises for not finishing it. They are not governed by their whims; they even impose necessary drill upon themselves. Towards their teacher their attitude is that of respect for superior knowledge, and friendly enjoyment of the help that is given them. This or that child attains a position of leadership because his fellows believe that he has merit; then, provided he exhibits both capacity for the tasks of a leader and devotion to the common weal, the other pupils loyally follow. Here is a healthy public spirit; here are rudimentary merit systems; here is a social unity, but along with it

individual self-expression. This is our method of character education. We do not think of goodness as something to be added to doing well what needs to be done, and meeting social needs as they arise. All that you see here is character; it is within the whole school process—it is identical with the process.”²

It hardly seems necessary to give many illustrations of the methods of teaching which give to the pupil this valuable form of experience. Current periodicals and shelves of the latest books³ on educational method contain an abundance of material. It is hoped that a few examples will stimulate the teacher to further acquaint himself with the progressive movement.

FORMS OF CO-OPERATIVE CLASS EXPERIENCE

The Child-centered School

Harold Rugg has been particularly responsible for popularizing the term “child-centered” school. The summary of a year’s curriculum in the fifth grade in the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, will illustrate the type of instruction to which this name has been applied.⁴

Units of work undertaken during the year

Water transportation—Making of reports about topics of special interest. Making boats. Drawings of boats for illustration of a book. Making a frieze for the room to show the evolution of boats.

² *Progressive Education*, VII (May, 1930), 160-61.

³ Any book list on progressive education would soon be out of date and the teacher will have little difficulty in finding such for himself. Attention is called to the official organ of the Progressive Education Association, *Progressive Education*, which contains the reports of progressive practices, reviews of new books, and general articles on educational improvement. Other magazines dealing with educational method contain much about the new points of emphasis in education.

⁴ Adapted from the curriculum for the year 1925-26, as reported in J. S. Tippet and Others, *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School* (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1927), pp. 252-53.



EDUCATION AS A CO-OPERATIVE EXPERIENCE

Fall exhibit of summer activities.

Work with room council.

Keeping canaries and white rats.

Trips and excursions

To Metropolitan Museum to study ships and maps. To South Ferry to see boats and ships. To Public Library to see books about ships. To Brooklyn to visit glass factory in connection with a study in Creative Music. To 125th Street ferry to see sailing ships. To Brooklyn Navy Yard to see dry docks and ships. To see steamer *Berengaria*.

The children also co-operated with other grades in the following units: bazaar for nursery equipment, creative work period, the Elementary School Council, European Relief Bazaar, the publishing of *Lincoln Life*.

The method of teaching is suggested by the "Articles of Faith" which have been summarized by Rugg and Shumaker:

Freedom: "The new freedom reveals itself, therefore, in an easier, more natural group life. . . . Thus the formal question-and-answer recitation is giving way to the free interchange of thought in group conferences and progress through individual work."⁵

Child Initiative: "These schools believe that boys and girls should share in their own government, in the planning of the program, in the administering of the curriculum, in conducting the life of the school. In the elementary division of some of these schools, during an informal morning discussion period, children, with the teacher as a wise but inconspicuous adult member of the group, consider together what they are to undertake during the day. The routine needs of the school, as well as the lesson assignments, the planning of excursions and exhibits, and the criticism of reports are taken over by the pupils."⁶

The Active School: "Pupils are active—physically active, mentally active, artistically active. There is a large amount of actual

⁵ From Harold Rugg and Ann Shumaker, *The Child-centered School* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: copyright, 1928, by World Book Co., Publishers), p. 56.

⁶ Rugg and Shumaker, *ibid.*, p. 57.

physical exertion, of overt bodily movement, of a wide variety of sensory contacts, of the type of energy-release which is ordinarily designated as play."⁷

Child Interest: "The units of the new program approximate as nearly as possible what to the children are real-life situations. Hence the new school organizes its program around the centers of interest rather than around academic subjects."⁸

Creative Self-Expression: "The spirit of the old school was centered about social adjustment, adaptation to the existing order. The aim of conventional education was social efficiency. Growth was seen as increasing power to conform, to acquiesce to a schooled discipline; maturity was viewed from the standpoint of successful compliance with social demands. In the new school, however, it is the creative spirit from within that is encouraged, rather than conformity to a pattern imposed from without. The success of the new school has been startling in eliciting self-expression in all of the arts, in discovering a marvelously creative youth."⁹

This *freedom* which is promoted in the "child-centered" school means that the child is as free as possible from restraints that prevent spontaneity and promote self-consciousness on the part of the child. It means freedom to do the thing that the individual judges worth while, with less dependence upon the fixed routine of the school. Freedom in group discussion gives the child opportunity to talk freely of vital matters, leads him to discuss questions and problems, and to secure the aid of the group in making important choices. The development of *child initiative* is encouraged through opportunities to assist in the administration of the school, in planning the program of the school, and in solving the problems that arise in the activities of the class. Such experience is a stimulus to thought, it develops in the child the ability to govern himself, and gives practice in problem-solving. The *active school* gives the child things to do. These activities open

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 58.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 61.

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 62-63.

up realms of knowledge but are particularly significant in that they develop in the pupil a habit of spending time in worthwhile pursuits and provide practice in co-operating with others in such activities. The school that is organized upon the basis of *child interest* is not likely to get very far away from real life-situations. Attention is focused upon things of the moment, the immediate interests of the child. In the lower grades the major interest is in the school scene. As the child advances these interests of the moment merge into long-time interests and purposes which are significant for adult life. *Creative self-expression* places the individuality of the child in the center of interest, and minimizes conformity to the requirements of the school or of society. It encourages original thinking rather than mere compliance with the standards and demands of society. Critics¹⁰ of progressive education have claimed that this emphasis upon self-expression has tended to develop an extreme individualism that has neglected matters of social welfare. Even the critics grant, however, that character is receiving more attention and that there are greater opportunities for the cultivation of personality in the school that emphasizes freedom, child initiative, activity, child interest, and creative self-expression than in the conventional school.

Under the leadership of L. Thomas Hopkins, curriculum specialist for the Lincoln School, certain modifications are being made in the nature of the curriculum units in the Lincoln School, although the general principles of the curriculum are essentially the same. The present tendency is toward large units of experience into which all of the "subjects" are integrated. Usually these units constitute the work for an entire year. Such a unit in the sixth grade had its center of

¹⁰ See, for example, the statement of George S. Counts, "Dare Progressive Education Be Progressive?" *Progressive Education*, IX (April, 1932), 257-63.

interest in architecture,¹¹ its aim being to trace its development through the ages and to interpret its meanings in everyday life. The unit included the study of the various forms of architecture from the ancient Egyptian to modern times, with a consideration of the characteristics, the leading examples, and modern examples of each style. The characteristics which may mark the architecture of the future were also studied, together with some of the architects whose work shows new trends and some of the examples of ultra-modern building. Correlated with this study were activities in the fields of arithmetic; industrial, household, and fine arts; history and geography; composition and literature; reading; science; music; and physical education. These studies were pursued because they were related to the various periods of history which were studied and to the interests that developed as a part of the unit. Some of the activities included in the unit were:

- a) Library research.
- b) Division of the class into small groups with research assignments for each.
- c) Discovery by individuals of samples of types of architecture and sketching of them for notebooks.
- d) Learning with the help of the industrial arts teacher how to make tracings and blue prints so they could blue print sketches for their notebooks.
- e) Study of symbols and their meaning. Each student tried to make a symbol which expressed his own personal ambitions and interests.
- f) Making plaster casts of historical ornaments.
- g) Study of windows and the making of a rose window from scraps of art glass, lead, etc.

¹¹ Reported in E. A. Barnes and B. M. Young, *Children and Architecture*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. 353 pages.

- h)* Members of the class operating a store which collected pictures and other materials needed by the pupils and selling them to those who wish to buy.
- i)* Lectures by the school librarian on the literature of the various periods of history, followed by library work, retelling and discussion of stories, study and discussion of the lives of great leaders, undirected "pleasure reading" periods.
- j)* Original creative composition of poetry and prose, including factual and descriptive materials in written and oral reports, paraphrasing of legends, class and assembly programs, etc.
- k)* Dramatization of episodes of history including the writing, staging, making of costumes, and other steps in production.
- l)* Excursions to buildings, museums, the Tiffany Studios where art glass work was done, etc., including preparatory discussions, studies from pictures and books, the preparing of a pre-plan for the trip, and follow-up discussions.
- m)* Summaries to bring together the topics not studied chronologically, including oral and written reports, reviews, resumés of activities, the discussion of charts and graphs, etc.

This unit did not serve all of the needs of the group and it was supplemented by other activities. There was a minor unit centering about National Book Week which resulted in the preparation of a bulletin of book reviews to which all contributed. Another unit included the collection and classification of a library of books for a middle western school that had been destroyed by fire. The preparation of baskets of food for a nursery at the Christmas season; a Thanksgiving pageant; a Christmas assembly and party; the making of gifts from clay, metal, leather, and wood, and of candies and cookies, were among the interests of the group at the holiday seasons. Arrangements were made for a book mart which the class conducted at the school's spring bazaar. The ordering, advertising, and selling of the books brought various forms of business experience. In addition to these activities of the class the entire school had its co-operative government plan and a

Junior Red Cross drive to which the sixth grade made its contribution. Pupils who were not up to the class norm in the tool subjects (penmanship, spelling, arithmetic, and written English) were given special tutoring. Freedom was allowed in much of the reading pursued by the boy or girl, but the teacher studied each child's reading report and recommended materials or referred him to the librarian. A weekly "Creative Work Period" and special activity groups gave opportunity for cooking, sewing, dramatics, swimming, painting, music, industrial arts, French, competitive games, science, and other activities not included in the major unit of the year, and also gave opportunity for social intercourse. Though separated from the major unit of the class, these activities were planned with appreciation of the value of freedom, child initiative, activity, child interest, and creative self-expression.¹²

The Winnetka Plan

The curriculum in the Winnetka (Illinois) system has during the superintendency of Carleton Washburne been organized with two definite divisions. One-half of the morning and one-half of the afternoon is devoted to the teaching of knowledges and skills by the "Individual Technique," while 50 per cent of the total day is devoted to group and creative activities, the purpose of which is "the development of individuality and training in social consciousness."¹³ The teaching by the individual technique gives more opportunity for personal development than the question-answer recitation of the conventional school. Each child has his own task for which he is responsible, he learns to work alone and to ask for help when needed, he corrects his daily work and learns to criticize

¹² Other Lincoln School units are being published among the "Lincoln School Curriculum Studies," by the Bureau of Publications of Teachers College.

¹³ Carleton Washburne and Myron M. Stearns, *Better Schools* (New York: John Day Co., 1928), p. 173.

his own workmanship, he learns that his own effort is directly related to success and failure in the task assigned. It is the group-activity program, however, that is most effective from the standpoint of character growth.

The group program includes a variety of activities. Some of the illustrations from a recent publication¹⁴ of Washburne's suggest the variety. He tells of visiting a sixth-grade class that has been studying the Middle Ages and has organized as craftsmen's guilds. Each child had joined a guild of his own choice. Each guild had planned its activities (wood carving, metal work, pottery, weaving, etc.) and had developed its own guild regulations and plans. It became an introduction to the forms and the problems of labor organization. Another sixth-grade class, also studying the Middle Ages, was writing its own dramatization of Robin Hood, with all the group working together on the process of dramatization, and then dividing up in smaller groups for the preparation of costumes and stage setting. A third sixth-grade class was constructing a medieval monastery and a fourth was building a medieval village. This type of activity is found in almost every grade, but with each class initiating and developing its own unit. There is a student-government organization with the various functions assigned to committees of pupils and teachers. One of these committees, for example, is entirely responsible for the assembly programs with entertainment features, group singing, dramatics, the discussion of problems of school citizenship, etc. There is a school paper edited in each of the elementary and junior high schools. There are periods for the appreciation of literature and creative writing. There are elective courses in printing, woodworking, art metal craft, art, science, typewriting, orchestra, glee club, and about twenty-five other non-academic courses in junior high school and many in elementary grades.

¹⁴ Carleton Washburne, *Adjusting the School to the Child*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1932. 189 pages.

The character value which results from the initiation of such activities and from the group experience involved in their consummation has been summarized in these words:

Children need to learn the social values of what they are doing. They need to cooperate in their activities. Each child must learn to contribute his special interests and his special skill to the welfare of the group enterprise. Just as on the playground we teach him to work for the good of the team and try to inculcate in him a spirit of sportsmanship and group unity, so in each of the other socialized activities he must learn to merge his welfare and interests with those of his fellows.¹⁵

Project Teaching in a Rural School

A few years ago Ellsworth Collings organized in the rural district of MacDonald County, Missouri, an experimental school in which the curriculum was selected directly from the interests and purposes of the pupils. The curriculum included four types of projects: Play Projects (games, folk dancing, dramatization, social parties), Excursion Projects (study of problems of the community life), Story Projects (the enjoyment of stories, songs, pictures, etc.), and Hand Projects (woodwork, cooking, gardening, etc.). Each type of project was developed as a co-operative plan of teacher and pupils and the scope and nature of it was determined from step to step as the interests of the pupils grew. Personal and community problems were met and very aggressive plans carried out for the solution of the problems.

Through the four years of the experiment Collings compared the results from this method of teaching in the Experimental School with the results in two similar schools taught by traditional methods. These last two schools were called "Control Schools." In addition to the gain made by the children in the Experimental School in academic achievement there were

¹⁵ From Carleton Washburne, *ibid.* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: copyright 1932 by the World Book Co., Publishers).

certain evidences of an effect upon the attitude and behavior of the pupils which resulted from the new method of teaching.

1. The Experimental School improved its percentage of enrollment of pupils during the four-year period 29.8 as against 4.8 for the Control Schools.
2. The percentage of pupils attending the Experimental School every day increased 93.1 as against 5.9 for the Control Schools.
3. The Experimental School decreased its percentage of tardiness of pupils 92 as against 6 for the Control Schools.
4. The percentage of corporal punishment was decreased 56.5 in the Experimental School as against 15 for the Control Schools.
5. The Experimental School improved 88.8 in the percentage of the pupils held in the upper grades in school until they had finished the elementary course of study as against 10.7 for the Control Schools.
6. The Experimental School improved 76 in the percentage of its pupils held in school throughout the entire school year as against 2 for the Control Schools.
7. In percentage of truancy the Experimental School decreased 25.5 as against 7 for the Control Schools.
8. The Experimental School improved 85.8 in the percentage of its graduates sent on to high school as against 8.4 for the Control Schools.¹⁶

An Activity Program in a Box Car Rural School

Vivian P. Evans, rural school supervisor in Riverside County, California, tells a story¹⁷ which answers the question as to whether it is possible to develop a progressive curriculum with limited equipment. An old box car was donated by the railroad to be the school building for the dozen or so children

¹⁶ Ellsworth Collings, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1924), p. 263. By permission of the Macmillan Co., Publishers.

¹⁷ California Curriculum Commission, *Teachers' Guide to Child Development* (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1930), pp. 101-13.

of all ages who lived in the settlement called Edom. The parents cleaned and painted the car, provided seats and blackboards, and secured a teacher to open the school. First the children hunted flowers for a desert flower book. Then they discovered a deposit of mud, washed in by a storm, and, with the help of certain neighbors of Mexican and Indian ancestry, engaged in the complicated process of making pottery. This led very naturally to an interest in primitive civilizations. Step by step the entire program developed around a series of projects in the following fields of interest:

1. Manual activities
2. Care of self and others (food, clothing, shelter, safety, care and value of money and property)
3. Home and community life
4. Nature
5. Literature
6. Skills in reading, art, conversation and writing, etc.
7. Use of leisure

The Little Red School House

The Little Red School House which has been established in New York City by the Public Education Association is an experimental center for progressive methods as they can be applied to the average public school. The school is being maintained with large classes, a small budget, and a democratic group of children in order that it may represent the normal in school situations. The pupils live in a co-operative rather than a competitive atmosphere, and the teacher takes an influential but not a dominant place in the group. Children learn through first-hand experience as much as possible. Books are used to broaden this experience but not as texts to be learned. Individual research and class conferences are the basic methods of instruction. Necessary time is devoted to academic subjects in order that the children may at least reach the age norms in each subject, but these subjects are not

given more time than is required. There are no grades or awards and the standard of work is maintained particularly by the pupil's interest in doing of each task and in the product of his work.

Modification of Teaching Procedure in Traditional Schools

Many teachers are finding that they can give to their pupils an increased measure of valuable experience by the modification of their classroom methods in a school which follows the traditional organization.

The "project" is quite a recognized part of the curriculum for elementary grades. A part of the time of the class is set aside for some type of group activity which gives more or less opportunity for co-operative planning and work, pupil initiative, and activity of a creative type. The children may build an airport, prepare a Christmas play, keep a daily bulletin board of clippings, prepare scrap books to send to Japan, or plan and plant a vegetable garden in the corner of the playground.

R. H. Leavell, a social science teacher in Hyde Park High School in Chicago, has for several years organized all of his classes into research committees. There are certain general assignments, but the committees are allowed to select some main topic for special study during the semester. The committees work together in gathering material and preparing the report, then appoint a representative to carry the findings to the assembled class. A chairman is elected at the beginning of the semester who presides over class discussion and with whom the instructor consults regarding the plans for the class. Mr. Leavell participates in class discussion and works with the various committees as they carry on their independent investigations.

A class in the study of occupations prepared a list of vocations which should be covered during the semester. Then they

prepared an outline of the information they should have about each. They were then able to prepare a schedule from week to week of visits to places of employment, speakers who were to be invited to meet and talk informally with the class regarding their line of work, readings and motion pictures, and group discussions.

A high-school English class in its composition time decided to prepare a handbook on school etiquette for incoming students. A period of discussion led to an outline of the book. Representatives were assigned the task of uncovering any useful references. The various sections of the booklet were assigned to committee groups to prepare. Special assignments were made for illustrating, for making arrangements with the principal for publication, etc. The teacher found that a student chairman relieved her of much responsibility and gave the students a greater feeling of responsibility for the entire undertaking.

Another English teacher¹⁸ found that the eighth-grade course of study recommended *A Perfect Tribute*, a story of Lincoln's Gettysburg address, for the study during the month of February. This story was to be read and the pupils to be given some practice in memorization and public speaking. The teacher started to plan a situation which would lead the members of the class to want to read the story and to gain the desired practice in memorization and speaking. About the first of February she opened the class hour by reading the Gettysburg address. After reading she reminded the class that Lincoln's birthday was approaching and asked, "What can we do to celebrate Lincoln's birthday?" Immediately the children responded with many suggestions—"a party," "let teacher read us a story," "a speaking contest," etc. After the suggestions were made the problem of evaluation and selection of a

¹⁸ Reported by Marie I. Rasey and S. A. Courtis, *Detroit Journal of Education*, I (May, 1921), 1-6.

plan came next. "Why is the reading of a story not a worthy way to celebrate Lincoln's birthday?" led to a thoughtful discussion and rejection of this idea. The contest was finally selected as the better plan. The vote was unanimous. On the second day the idea of a prize for the contest was suggested but was decided as unworthy after a consideration of the real purpose in giving the speech. The class was divided into teams, committees to arrange details appointed, and everyone started to memorize the Gettysburg address. After a short period of preparation several pupils declared themselves ready for the preliminary contest, but the trial was a miserable failure. Some forgot the words entirely while all were badly confused. Immediately they wanted to know what was the trouble and it was discovered that they did not understand the meaning and significance of the words they were trying to memorize. The demand was made on the teacher for material that would interpret the address. Copies of *A Perfect Tribute*, histories, and a dictionary were available on the following day. These sources were explored with genuine interest and the teacher was available for consultation. After several days the class again thought it was ready for the contest. The words were not forgotten this time but the delivery and posture of the speakers was obviously in need of criticism. Another discussion period was devoted to the analysis of points of failure and the advice sought of the principal of the school and two other faculty members who could give special help on posture and modes of public speaking. The students were sincerely grateful for this help and worked hard in preparation for the final contest. The contest was to be conducted and the judging arranged by the class members, which necessitated the preparation of a score card based upon fair standards of good public speaking. The contest was held on February 11, and the services of the best speakers offered to other English classes in the school for February 12. In this unit the students

had gained the desired knowledge of the story and practice in public speaking, but in addition had gained experience in planning their own work and executing the plan, experience in making careful choices and evaluating the results of their own efforts, and had enjoyed the unit and worked harder on it than if the teacher had used more conventional methods of teaching.

Jane Mayer, assistant supervisor of health education of the Detroit public schools, has been experimenting in elementary physical education classes with a method of teaching which she thinks will develop in the child the "powers of self-direction, self-appraisal and self-control"; the "ability to see problems"; and the "desire and ability to work co-operatively" with other pupils. The first of these objectives she feels is being realized in some degree, at least, by allowing pupils to participate in planning the activities of their classes, refereeing games, by providing class periods during which children are allowed to play with equipment without direction and periods of discussion about the way the class is conducted and about the successes and mistakes of players and referees. An interest in the discovery and solution of problems is stimulated by the frequent periods of discussion during which problems in the skill of playing games are considered, also such questions of personal conduct as "I don't think it is fair for some of us to play goal guard all the time." The desire and ability to co-operate is increased by actual practice in co-operation with the teacher and with one another in planning the class and getting equipment ready. It is also increased by the practice of mutual criticism and such advice as "Jack, you had better back up."

TEACHING METHODS WHICH ARE DESTRUCTIVE TO CHARACTER

The method of teaching may add to the teacher's influence upon the developing character of the pupil in harmful as well as in constructive ways. Even the most progressive methods do not always give the desired result. Hugh Hartshorne says:

These skills of democracy are not the inevitable products of so-called progressive education. Modern private schools are not noteworthy for their socializing effects even though their underlying theory would demand results of this character. The reason for this is complex, of course. One difficulty lies in the very privacy of the schools, which withdraws them from intimate participation in the common life and so leaves them without genuine social experiences. But the primary reason, which applies to public as well as private schools, seems to be that the teachers have not been trained for the more subtle leadership which should result in the unconscious courtesies, understandings, and creative fellowships that characterize great teaching everywhere and are the mark of true culture the world around.¹⁹

We desire a school in which the pupil learns control of his own life and skill in co-operation with others. If there is opportunity for the pupil to form and execute purposes of his own he is more likely to develop this control and skill than under traditional methods of teaching, but some of the experiments of untrained teachers with progressive methods have only produced aggressive individualists and shallow thinkers. The new movement is so radically different from the traditional methods of teaching that it makes very different demands upon the teacher, both as to training and personal characteristics.

We need only mention some of the more familiar errors in the relations of teacher to pupil which may have lasting influence upon the child. One who is now engaged in educational work himself tells of an experience which happened to him during the first few weeks of his own school experience but which he has never forgotten. It was a little unkindness on the part of the teacher which she never thought of again, but the child never forgot. Especially to the young child the teacher is an ideal and he wishes, above everything else perhaps, to gain her favor. For this reason he is very sensitive and his feelings are easily hurt.

¹⁹ *Journal of Educational Sociology*, IV (December, 1930), 200.

A very brilliant little girl in the fourth grade started stealing things from the classroom. She came from a good family and there was apparently no reason why she should steal. It developed that the teacher had done something several months before which she considered very unjust, hence she took this way to retaliate. Perhaps there is nothing which will have a more detrimental influence upon the character of the average pupil than the feeling that he is treated unjustly. The *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Classroom Teachers lists certain disciplinary practices and policies as hindrances to the development of character. Among them are many which are detrimental in that they give the child reason for feeling that he is treated unjustly.

Assignment of low marks in academic subjects as a punishment for undesirable conduct in school.

Punishment of the group for an offense which is known to have been committed by one pupil or a small part of the group.

Partiality in handling problems of conduct.

Unconsciously rewarding pupils for misbehavior or punishing them for desirable behavior—for example, punishing a child who tells the truth about his misconduct, while others equally guilty escape punishment by remaining silent or telling an untruth.

Inconsistency in discipline; ignoring certain offenses in one instance and punishing the offenders in the next.

Unreasonableness of any sort, particularly the practice of "making mountains out of mole-hills."

Punishment which is out of proportion to the offense, or which does not take into account the temperament of the individual pupil.²⁰

Often this feeling of injustice is not justified by the facts but, whether the injustice is real or imaginary, the effect upon the pupil is the same.

²⁰ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers, "The Classroom Teacher and Character Education," *Seventh Yearbook* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1932), p. 210.

Hartshorne and May tell us that "it is found that there is always a negative correlation between the ability to do the tests and the amount of cheating exhibited on the test."²¹ This same study showed the least tendency to cheat in schools that avoided competitive methods and the excessive use of such artificial stimuli as tests and grades.²² Another study²³ attempted to discover the motives which led to delinquency for a group of children brought into court. This study indicated that the school difficulties of the majority of these children started when they were not able to do the work they were expected to do. As a consequence, they became either truants or disturbing factors in the room. Much has been said about overemphasis upon the making of high grades, using flash cards and other methods which put the slow child at a disadvantage, competitive methods of any kind which rob a portion of the class of any hope for satisfactory achievement, and the grouping of children so that some are unable to compete successfully with others in the class.²⁴ One of the essentials for the development of character is a fair chance to succeed. The teacher must give to every pupil this opportunity and avoid overemphasis upon the differences in achievement among his pupils.

The teacher must provide the setting and encourage good workmanship. Children develop in a working environment, they gain confidence from the satisfaction of jobs well done,

²¹ Hugh Hartshorne and Mark A. May, *Studies in the Nature of Character by the Character Education Inquiry*, I. *Studies in Deceit* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1928), p. 395.

²² Hugh Hartshorne and Mark A. May, *Studies in the Organization of Character* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1930), pp. 99-102.

²³ Marion S. Brill, "Motivation of Conduct Disorders in Boys," *Journal of Delinquency*, XI (1927), 5-22.

²⁴ A discussion of homogeneous grouping as related to the developing personality will be found in chap. xix.

and they are inspired by capable and well-prepared teachers. The teacher who is not prepared himself and is not able to help his pupils do a profitable day's work every day does not gain either the respect or the development of his pupils.

Those who are engaged in the individual counseling of pupils so often hear the complaint: "I can't see any sense in Geometry (or any other subject in the curriculum)." In other words, the teacher has not succeeded in creating in the pupil an interest in the course and he sees no reason for exerting effort to succeed.

One other common failure of teachers hardly needs mention in view of the emphasis which has already been made upon the value of pupil-activity. A letter was sent out to 29,000 elementary- and high-school pupils in which they were asked what kind of teachers were considered most helpful to pupils. Among the characteristics mentioned most often were:

Doesn't make pupils feel inferior.

Patient, kind and sympathetic.

Polite and courteous.

Has confidence in pupil.

Respect for pupil's viewpoint in class.

Allows leadership among pupils.²⁵

Pupils have opinions of their own and wish their value recognized, they wish to do and think for themselves, they even wish the privilege of disagreeing with others on occasion. Whatever the method used, if the teacher does not convince the members of his class of his respect for their personal interests and ability and give them opportunity for expression, then another basic condition for personal development is lacking.

The pupil develops strong character in an environment

²⁵ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, "Character Education," *Tenth Yearbook* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1932), pp. 284-88.

which sets significant tasks and provides a fair opportunity to achieve them. He also grows best in an environment of mutual respect and confidence between pupil and teacher. When the methods of the teacher are such as to deny him these essentials, the school may become a hindrance rather than a helpful influence.

CHAPTER VI

CONFLICTS AND PROBLEMS OF CONDUCT AS TEACHING OPPORTUNITIES

Whatever method the teacher may use in teaching, conflicts and problems will surely arise in the classroom. The teacher may consider these disturbances as annoyances to be stopped with the least effort and loss of time, in order that the work of the class may proceed without interruption. The pupil or pupils who are the cause of the annoyances may be punished, separated from the class environment, or squelched, in order that they may cease to disturb the class. The greatest achievement of the child may be to conform to the demands of a smoothly running classroom. W. H. Burnham has said: "Thus to the ordinary school a conventional failure is more desirable than a troublesome success."¹

Now that the emphasis is shifting from the smoothly running school to the success of the pupil as the aim of education, the teacher takes a new attitude toward the troubles and problems that arise. These disturbances may be only the natural reactions of normal children or they may be symptoms of significant personal difficulties of children. In other words, the teacher is conscious of the fact that the boy who disturbs the class, the girl who always tries to attract attention to herself, or the child who cheats on an examination may need help and that the appearance of a problem has given to him a teaching opportunity.

The mental hygiene movement has been responsible for calling to the attention of teachers certain other forms of be-

¹ W. H. Burnham, *Success and Failure as Conditions of Mental Health* (New York: National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1922), p. 4.

havior that are of even greater significance than those that may disturb the smooth running of the school. According to the Wickman survey,² the teacher has less reason to be concerned with the schoolroom annoyances and problems of pupil-teacher relationships than with the maladjustments that may cause pupils to be unsocial, unhappy, resentful, fearful, and the like. These last symptoms are more likely to be evidence of serious and permanent maladjustment.

If it were possible to administer the school or the classroom so that there came to the attention of the teacher no evidences of maladjustment, it would be very unfortunate from the standpoint of the child. Some teachers are relatively unconscious of conflicts and problems and do not experience a great amount of distress because of problems that arise. Of greater promise are those teachers who see in each problem an opportunity to offer assistance and guidance. To those teachers, the problems that come to attention are teaching opportunities to be utilized. They are guideposts which suggest avenues for needed service. Courtis says:

A mistake is not a disgrace but an opportunity to learn. If children made no mistakes, teachers would be out of a job. From the point of view of achievement, a mistake means failure, from the point of view of growth, a mistake merely points out the exact spot where teaching can be done effectively.³

These teaching opportunities may be met in one of several ways. (1) The problem that arises may suggest needed points of emphasis which will result in changes in the content of the regular curriculum. Many of the illustrations of the shifting center of interest in the curriculum (chaps. ii and iii) were of units in which the content was selected for its immediate con-

² E. K. Wickman, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1929), 247 pages.

³ S. A. Courtis, *Philosophy of Education for Teachers* (mimeographed) (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Edwards Bros., Inc., 1931), p. 110.

tribution to the needs of individuals in the class. (2) Because the methods of teaching and classroom management are so often the cause of maladjustments among boys and girls, the teacher who is faced with a pupil problem will often be led to criticize his own methods and to find there the source and remedy for the problem. (3) The teacher may find it advisable to introduce special units or group activities which will contribute to the particular form of conflict or maladjustment. The illustrations of special units included in the chapters of Part II will include such activities. (4) In many instances, these teaching opportunities can only be met by the individual approach. The teacher will then have to apply the techniques of individual guidance, which also will be considered elsewhere in this volume.

By way of example, let us suppose that a teacher becomes concerned with the fact that several of his pupils are selfish and unco-operative in group activities. He may have opportunity in both academic and vocational courses to direct attention to some of the life-situations that demand co-operative endeavor and the willingness to pursue group rather than individual interests. Furthermore, the teacher may examine his method of teaching and decide that there is need for a more democratic procedure in the management of the classroom. Formal methods of teaching may be supplemented with project units which will give experience in group participation. In the third place, the teacher may plan a series of special discussion periods in which the group will talk informally about a group of case studies related to the problem of the class, or he may plan a service project that will bring the experience and satisfactions of unselfish service. If these methods do not bring the desired result, the teacher may use the methods of individual counseling. Through study of the case and of the causes for the difficulty he may assist the child to make an adjustment based upon greater consideration for the interests of others and for the values of group action.

A group of about two hundred elementary teachers were each requested to prepare a list of the ten problems of conduct most often met in the classroom. These problems were tabulated and a committee, representing each of the buildings, called together from week to week to consider what the teacher could do when each problem arose. Bulletins were sent to each teacher which summarized the results of the committee in the form of questions and gave references for supplementary reading. Questions were used because they are less dogmatic than other forms of statement. They stimulate thinking on the part of the teacher, and suggest that there is no simple and uniform explanation for a conduct difficulty and no panacea that will insure adjustment of each individual case.

Samples of some of these bulletins are given below. Attention is called to the manner in which the questions touch upon the teaching procedures of the teacher as well as upon the personal needs of pupils as the cause of the problems that arise.⁴ The suggested treatments include both individual and group methods.

Disturbance in school, boisterousness, etc.

- a) "One child starts running down stairway—the followers believe in 'Follow the Leader' and all run down."⁵
- b) "Inability to stand still, sit still or to keep from playing with . . . paper, crayons, etc."
- c) Talking when one class is returning to their seats and another coming to class chairs.
- d) Running in halls although they have discussed matter in class and formed class rules.

⁴ These bulletins were prepared by teachers in the Pontiac (Michigan) public schools with the help of the supervisor of kindergarten and primary grades, and the director of character education, and brought together in a mimeographed pamphlet entitled, *Conduct Problems of Elementary Children*.

⁵ The problems inclosed in quotations are repeated in the words of the teachers who reported them.

- e) "They cannot distinguish between liberty and license. If you give them an inch they take a mile. This spirit of 'I'll have my own right' is the cause of our unkindness and discourteousness. If you work for self-control, it gets across to a very few who go to the other extreme of repression, while the majority do not get it at all. If you work for freedom of expression they go wild. If the teacher ever gets in the background she never gets in the foreground again."

Should we draw a distinction between undesirable boisterousness and normal activity? How easy is it to stand still or sit still? Might some conversation, as the pupils pass to their seats, be an aid to friendliness in the room and have a restful effect upon the child? How can the teacher have an orderly school and also develop pupil initiative and self-reliance? What is the proper balance between lock-step discipline and excessive freedom? How best develop a right attitude toward regulations? Does it mean the elimination of meaningless requirements? Do you have any regulations for which the pupils do not understand the reason? Do they have a part in forming the rules? Does it help to talk over the rules in class? Can this be done without the teacher dominating the discussion to the degree that pupils cannot learn to think for themselves in those matters?

- f) Talking during study time.
g) Children do not feel responsible for personal conduct when left in the room alone.

To what extent are these problems due to the fact that the pupils are not accustomed to freedom and have not learned to be responsible for their own conduct? To what extent is the problem due to lack of something to do? Is talking on the part of pupils undesirable if it does not interfere with work that is to be done?

What methods can best be used: Expressions of dissatisfaction with pupils when their behavior is not commendable?

Expressions of praise when the group shows evidence of self-control? A gradual development of interest in the work of the class so that the motivation of study will be stronger? A discussion of dependability as applied to the schoolroom?

- h)* "Lack of courtesy. . . . Interrupting conversation, passing in front of others, crowding or pushing in lines. . . . Many times it is merely a play spirit uncontrolled."
- i)* "Talking and saying nothing."
- j)* Do not listen when others are talking.
- k)* "I believe that a teacher should feel free to ask a child to pass material to the other children in the room while she is busy with another task; and have the material given and received with politeness and respect. Usually a child passes the material to about half of the children when trouble ensues. One child grabs the material or does unnecessary talking about it, and thus much time is wasted. I feel that in my room and many rooms which I have been in, that courtesy and politeness among the children has been neglected. If once acquired the room atmosphere will be greatly improved."

What is the cause of this lack of courtesy and group cooperation: Lack of experience in social situations? A lack of experience in a cultured home? A desire to "show off" and to attract attention? Selfishness?

Does it help: For the teacher to be particularly careful to be courteous herself? To show the class how to distribute materials quickly? When there are meaningless digressions to say, "Is that important now?" To train pupils to stop reciting when there is conflicting conversation? To talk over matters of courtesy in free conversation periods? To explain the meaning and value of the unselfish way? To be quick to express appreciation when matters of school routine are handled courteously by the pupils?

- l)* Pupils disobey safety-patrol boys.

What is the function of the patrol boys? What do the pupils in general think of them? What methods might be followed to increase the respect for the position of patrol boy? Is too much responsibility given to the few? Is it possible that those who resent control might be helped if they had a responsibility to perform for the school? Should there be a rotation of responsibility? If younger children cannot be patrol boys, should they have other responsibilities for the school so that they, too, are a part of a co-operative society? Can we make of self-government something more than police duty so that it will be an experience in co-operative social living?

Cruelty toward other children

- a) Slapping other children.
- b) Boy annoys others without knowing why. His attention is poor and he tries to attract notice.
- c) Fighting on the way to and from school.
- d) Boy delights in teasing girls.

Is the cruelty done in retaliation for some injury (real or imaginary)? Is it done impetuously in anger? Is it done just to tease? Is it due to a false sense of what is fun? Is it ever done to attract attention—as a means of “showing off”? Is it ever done when teacher gives a responsibility to the child and he uses this way of demonstrating his authority or superiority? Where does he get this concept of authority? Has he learned it at home? In his play “gang”? At school? In a rare case may the demonstration of cruelty be due to a sex perversion.

If it is due to a grudge, could the nature of the grudge be discovered and the conflict dissolved? Is it not well to have such rules as keeping hands off of one another which would develop a respect for the person of others and reduce the amount of slapping and hitting? If it is an effort to attract attention, can the child be given other ways to get recognition? Would a discussion of the problem in the class help to

set up another standard so that the one who is cruel will not be rewarded with special attention? Can a substitute for fighting be given boys by teaching them various forms of wrestling according to the rules? Would it be a good thing to have strength contests between boys and girls?

Stealing

- a) Scissors and other school supplies.
- b) Lunches, candy, crayons, etc., belonging to other children.
- c) Money.
- d) "Will take anything that is left unguarded whether it is of use to her, or not."
- e) Steal from fruit stands on way to school.
- f) "I seem not to be able to make my boys and girls see that to pick just a pencil, a piece of paper, or a penny is wrong."

Why does the child steal? Is it because he has need for the object? Is it because he feels inferior to other pupils and wishes to have some of the things which they have? Is it because he wishes to injure the individual whose article is taken? Is it because of the fun of stealing without getting caught, which makes it an exciting game for him? Is it because he has never learned the meaning of property rights and sees no reason why he should not take anything which he wants? Is it due to an established habit of stealing? Is it the result of unconscious imitation of adults who do not respect property rights? Is it because he is the tool of other children who steal?

Would not the first step in solving the problem be to find out the motive for stealing in the particular instance? Could this be done by a minute investigation of the act itself? Would it not be better to find out in a more indirect way? (Find out if the child actually lacks the things he steals. Find out if he is unpopular because he does not dress as well as other children in school. Find out if he has a normal recreational life so that it is not necessary to resort to stealing as a means of amusement. Find out if he has stolen before and how parents have

treated him on these occasions. Investigate the home background enough to know whether or not there has been a chance for the child to learn the meaning of ownership and to have property and money of his own to use or misuse.) Is "catching" the child the aim of the teacher or is the aim to help him to make adjustment on his own initiative?

What general methods can be used to establish the sense of ownership among all pupils? Is it essential that every child have at least a few pennies a week to spend for himself and to learn the results of using it? How can the teacher encourage parents to do this for their children? Can each child be allotted a share of school supplies and be given increasing responsibility for using and saving his share, and also be denied the privilege of engaging in certain activities if he has used up his share of the necessary materials? Should the child not have a right to decide what is to be done with an article which he finds and which is not claimed? Should the teacher use more care in deciding what to do with children's property even if it is only chewing gum or a marble which he has been playing with? Is it better to keep the property for the child until after school but return it to him at that time?

Would any of the following procedures help in handling a specific case of stealing: (a) To have the child himself return the stolen article to the owner? (b) If the article cannot be returned, to have it replaced by some object of equal value which belongs to the child? (c) To have the child earn the money to replace the article? (d) To tie up the hand which pilfers as a reminder to the child? (e) To hold a trial and let the class decide what to do? (f) When the child has stolen because of actual need or a feeling of inferiority, to place as little emphasis as possible upon the deed and to provide an honest way for him to satisfy his need or to gain a wholesome recognition by the class?

Tattling

- a) "Mary hurt Johnny on the playground."
- b) "Joe is going to sock Billy on the way home, etc."

Should tattling be forbidden at all times? May it be desirable for the child to report things that happen if reported in the right spirit? Can the teacher usually tell whether a child should or should not be allowed to tell things? Can the teacher tell whether the child is telling something because he thinks it his duty or because he wishes to get revenge or show off? Can she gradually show these boys and girls who are habitual tattlers just what should or should not be reported, and encourage them to pay more attention to other matters? Would it be better to talk to them individually rather than to give them recognition in the class by talking about their faults? Can she satisfy their desire for attention in some other way than listening to their stories?

Can the child recognize the difference between that which should be told and that which should not? Would it help for the teacher to talk with the pupils about tattling and urge them to report the good things rather than the bad things which they know about others? Could the teacher explain to the children when it is best to tell things that happen and when it is to be condemned as tattling? If there are deeds of misconduct to be reported should the pupil not be urged to report on himself rather than for the pupils to report on another?

If there is a period during the week which is devoted to character education should matters of misconduct be talked over at that time, if at all? If there are matters which the class might consider in group discussion, should the pupils be urged to say nothing about them until that period? If this is done, however, will it prevent the teacher from finding out about matters with which she should be acquainted at once

and which should not be brought to the attention of the other pupils? When matters arise which the teacher thinks should have her attention, should she not interview pupils to find out what they know and then urge them not to say anything to anyone else about the matter?

Does the monitor system tend to develop tattlers? Should student officers be commissioned to report the good things rather than the bad about their fellow-pupils?

Are elementary student councils capable of holding trial for their fellow-students? When is it a helpful thing? When does it encourage a critical attitude, unkindness toward pupils, and tattling?

Quarreling

- a) No one wishes to give up his turn.
- b) Not willing to wait turn.
- c) Quarreling over playground equipment.
- d) "Three boys are involving a younger boy in daily fights. Repeated complaints come of the younger child picking fights with one of the group. My opinion is that the remaining two of the trio are the instigators of the trouble each time."

If the teacher interferes too much when pupils quarrel, isn't it probable that the pupils will learn to rely upon her too much? Is there not a value in allowing children to settle their own disputes? Are teachers ever disturbed too easily over children's quarrels, especially on days when they do not themselves feel their best?

If one child gives up too easily while another learns that he gains his ends by being "bossy" and selfish, is it not detrimental to both? What can be done to help the child who is habitually selfish, and has become a bully in his methods? Can he see what are the requirements of "fair-play" and equal rights to all? Does it help to deprive such a pupil of privileges? If he resents it at first, will he not get over the feeling if left

alone? In any handling of such a case is it not essential that all the class members know the reason for the treatment and give their approval to what the teacher does? Isn't it also important that the parents agree with the attitude of the teacher? How can the teacher convince the father or mother that it is not best to encourage the child to fight for everything that he wants?

What should be done for the weaker or the younger children, or the girls who find themselves weaker among boys? Should they be favored and protected by the teacher? Should they be encouraged to take their own part lest they become more of a baby in their dependence upon adults? If they are actually inferior can they be guided into a substitute field in which there will be opportunity for the display of equality or superiority?

When she settles the quarrel does the teacher always take time to find out how the quarrel started and who has the strongest claim to the turn or the use of the ball, who has waited longest for the swing or the jar of paste, etc.? If the teacher solves the matter without due consideration of the rights of the pupils involved, will she not appear to be taking sides in the quarrel? Won't this reduce the effectiveness of the teacher in the arbitration of more serious matters? Won't it increase the hard feelings and the possibility of other quarrels in the future?

What methods can be used to reduce the number of opportunities for quarrels? Can individuals or groups that habitually quarrel be kept separate or the number of opportunities for conflict reduced? If they cannot take turns with materials, playground equipment, etc., without quarreling, should regulations be formulated which define the length of each one's turn, the order of turns, etc.?

Is the difficulty lessened when the class discusses the matter during a discussion period? If respect for the rights of others

is encouraged and there is a clear understanding of the nature of these rights, will the amount of quarreling not be reduced? Waiting turns is a matter of efficiency in that it assures equal opportunity for all and the minimum of time lost between turns. Would it not help, therefore, for the class which has trouble to discover this fact for itself? The teacher may, for example, solicit the help of two students to help her count the total number of turns there are on the slides for a period of ten minutes. Then she may tell the class to try taking turns in an orderly way without quarreling and compare the number of turns there are in a ten-minute period. Could such an experiment be used to indicate the loss there is to the pupils in other similar difficulties which lead to quarreling and the loss of time?

Child is always trying to attract attention

- a) One child comes late because he loves to create a disturbance and be the center of attraction.
- b) Boy wants to be noticed by others who come in room. Also lacks concentration and annoys other children outside of school.
- c) "The moment a visitor comes in the room it is his duty to entertain them . . . cries easily . . . wants to be loved."

Is this excessive desire to attract attention one which all pupils share equally or is it the peculiar problem of a few boys and girls? If it is the peculiar problem of a few individuals, is it not possible that there may be a definite personal reason for such a desire for attention?

What might be the cause of this desire to "show off"? Does the child lack normal attention and affection at home? Is he spoiled at home so that he has learned to expect more than ordinary attention? Does he lack personal charm and the ability to make friends? Have teachers placed too much emphasis upon grades with the result that they may have developed an attitude of hopelessness and failure? Do par-

ents have too high aspirations for the child? Are there other children in the family who are superior in ability or who are constantly referred to as superior? Is he physically incapable of competing successfully with his friends in play? Does he have any physical defect such as lameness, defective sight or hearing, disfiguring birthmark, etc.? Does he suffer from enuresis (bed-wetting) or other embarrassing habits? Cannot almost every case of a child who persistently "shows off" to attract attention be traced back to a feeling of inferiority or inequality? Is not this habit the manifestation of an inferiority feeling (which may or may not be due to actual inferiority) and an effort on the part of the child to gain the attention of the group?

If this is the case, will not the treatment of the child be suggested if we find out the cause for the feeling of inferiority? If the reason for the complex or feeling is not evident, should not the teacher at once seek the aid of one who can diagnose the child's attitude?

What can be done to cure the condition? Is it desirable to "squench" or "deflate" the "smart-alec"? Won't this increase the feeling of inferiority? If the child is "squelled" successfully, will he not be led to find the desired satisfaction in the realms of imagination and fancy, and be even less happily adjusted to the group. Would punishment be effective or would it only help the child to secure recognition as a troublesome member of the class? If punishment is given should it not be planned in a way to show the class that he works the wrong way to attract the attention of his classmates?

Is it possible to find a method by which the child can express himself in the way he most desires? Can the actual cause for the inferiority be removed, whether the cause is within the child or without the child? Should not particular care be taken to classify such students with those with whom they can compete on equal terms? Can the child actually taste

truly satisfying success? Can the teacher provide opportunities for the pupil to gain attention for real achievement? Is it not wise to avoid those substitute opportunities for achievement which will tend to make the child feel that they are provided because of sympathy for his inferiority? Can care be taken that the disability of the pupil is not discussed in the class or in the home? At the same time, would it not be well at least in many instances for a skilled person to help the pupil to face the cause for the abnormality and plan a desirable method of gaining wholesome recognition? (This would seem to call for a psychologist or psychiatrist in most cases.) Should not any evidence of progress in the field in which the child feels inferiority be greeted with praise and encouragement? Rather than call the attention of the class to the child who is "showing off," would it not be better to ignore the child in the class (and possibly to encourage the children to do the same whenever such disturbances occur)⁶ and then to talk with the child privately about the folly of this conduct and better ways to gain attention?

Lying and deceitfulness

- a) "Lyle asked to take his nickel to the store to buy crayons at recess. When it was time to use them he reported them stolen. The next morning it was learned, from another child, that Lyle had spent the money for candy and intended to take another child's crayons but was told if he did the teacher would be told. He denied all guilt at first, then cried and said he would tell the children about it. Tears are abundant and lies are common with him."
- b) "Loss of money, crayons and pencils are very frequent in all our rooms but cannot always be traced out."
- c) Children keep things they find without trying to find owner and say they are theirs because they found them.

⁶ All discussions of the subject in the class must be impersonal and come at a time when the children are not thinking of a particular act of misconduct.

- d) "I have a girl in my room who comes to school very nearly every day and tells impossible things. Have been talking about 'cotton' and this morning she told us of seeing fields and fields of cotton and darkies picking it while she and her parents were driving yesterday."
- e) Denies anything of which he is guilty.
- f) "How far shall imagination be allowed to go?—to the point of lying as it often does?"

Are all lies told for the same reason? If they are not, is it not essential to know in each instance why the lie was told? Might it be a "defensive" lie, told by the child to protect himself from punishment or the disapproval of others? Might it be a lie to secure recognition or sympathy? Is it possible to form a persistent habit of deception so that the child lies unconsciously? Was it merely an imaginative story and not told to deceive?

What causes may lead the child to tell a defensive lie or other lies of deception? Is the child copying the "social fibs" which he hears his parents tell? Is deception admired and encouraged by the parents because they consider it clever and good business not to be strictly honest? Has the child learned to deceive because others have broken their promises to him? Do teachers and parents ever encourage lying by making too many demands upon incapable children?⁷ (Child has low intelligence, lessons are too difficult, parents expect him to be as good a student as more intelligent children in the family, parents want child to be as successful as neighbor children of

⁷ It was suggested by the committee that in matters such as tardiness, excuses are demanded when the child knows of no reason for the offense. It will usually be just as effective to say to the child, "Could you have been here on time?" or "Will you be more careful not to be late again?" If tardiness is frequent it may be well to find out if the parents are to blame and to talk with the class about the need for promptness at school. Some schools find it effective when it is the child's fault to have him make up the time lost.

superior ability, etc.) Do teachers encourage the child to rationalize his behavior by demanding too many excuses? Do contests and prizes encourage deceitfulness? Is it not dangerous to have children make personal reports on their conduct, health habits, etc.? If the child is unable to make a good report, will he not lie rather than face the embarrassment of a poor report?

Why is it that the child will deceive under certain circumstances and not under others? Is it the strength of social disapproval or the punishment which he fears if he does not give a good account of himself? Does he merely deceive when the rewards are sufficiently attractive? Can those situations which offer particular temptation be reduced in frequency? Does cheating on examinations present any peculiar causes or problem?

What is the best way to correct this fault? If the child is lying in order to attract attention or secure sympathy, should he not be given other methods to satisfy his desire? If the child cannot get along without lying because he lacks the mental ability, should he not be placed where he will not be expected to do the impossible? Should every child be made to feel, both at home and at school, that it is easier to confess wrong-doing and receive advice than to attempt to deceive? If the child is being taught to deceive by adults who condone it, what can the teacher do?⁸ Should lying be explained to the child as a form of cowardice? Can the child be shown that he

⁸ It was the experience of the committee that children often find a conflict between the standards of the home and the school. The parents do not insist on the same standards of honesty as the teacher. In these cases the teacher should be able to tell why it is best to be honest. She should help children to realize that although parents are not perfect they usually wish their children to be better than they are themselves. The teacher cannot insist that the child follow her standard but can ask the child "which do you think is best?" In this way she will appeal to the intellect of the child and if he accepts her standard it will be his own choice.

is merely running away from difficulties without gaining anything by it, and that there are methods to avoid these occurrences? If it is true, as certain psychologists say, that the child usually does not understand the difference between truth and falsehood until he is eight or nine years of age, what are the implications for the teacher of primary grades? Would it help to discuss the distinction with the class? Would it help to give them practice in making true reports? (Let them look at pictures, activities, etc., and report just what they see.) For the older child who persists in lying, might it be wise to give him an experience of disappointment by making a promise and later disappointing him? Might such an experience be more effective than any other type of lessons?⁹

What should be done about the child who tells imaginative stories? Do not most children see the difference between imaginative stories and "fact" stories? Would it help, when the child tells some highly imaginative story, to ask, "Is this a make-believe story or an honest-to-goodness story?" Or to use other methods to make clear the distinction between fact and imagination? If the tendency should continue into later childhood, might it be an evidence of a fixed habit? In extreme cases would not specialized diagnosis and treatment be desirable?

⁹ See Mateer, *Just Normal Children*, p. 208, for a sample of this type of treatment.

PART II

UNITS OF INSTRUCTION WHICH HAVE
CHARACTER EDUCATION AS
THEIR MAJOR AIM

CHAPTER VII

THE FUNCTION OF SPECIAL UNITS

The preceding chapters have illustrated some of the ways in which the regular curriculum can contribute to the growth of character. There is also a place in the school program for special curriculum units introduced for their character value. Whether the class pauses only for fifteen minutes between the study of arithmetic and geography to discuss some problem of school citizenship, or whether it devotes a long period of time to some enterprise of social service—either of these might be classified as such a unit. By special units of character development are meant all curriculum activities planned primarily for the purpose of helping children to develop character.¹

It was suggested in an earlier chapter² that there were two major objections to character education units in the curriculum. In the first place, some have opposed any plan which isolates character in a separate compartment of the school and its program. In the second place, such units have been discredited because the words "character education units" have implied a particular type of unit based upon methods of teaching which are obsolete in other fields of teaching, which are ineffective and even detrimental to character.

If character is a method of living, if character education has as its aim the preparation of the child to meet all life's opportunities and demands upon the highest plane, then character education cannot be isolated from the rest of the school program and be effective. The same statement is true, however,

¹ See chapter i for an interpretation of the author's conception of "character" and "character values."

² Chap. i, pp. 9-12.

of any phase of the school program. Specialists in curriculum building are emphasizing the need that the entire curriculum be integrated with other interests, that all instruction be seen in relation to the total experience of living. Chapters ii and iii in their entirety are a testimony to this shift of attention in the curriculum. Many have failed to relate what they have called "character education" to the remainder of the school program and to other interests in life. The units have been concerned only with abstract principles and ideals, and not with life-situations. Furthermore, the isolation of character education has been increased because these special units were considered as the entire program of character education. Fifteen minutes a day, an hour a week, or other designated time, was devoted to character interests and then they were forgotten during the remainder of the week. These character interests must pervade the total school experience of the pupil.

The second objection to character education units seems to be an objection to the methods of teaching used. Perhaps because it is easier to prepare and to publish "courses of study" based upon traditional methods of teaching than upon the basis of more progressive methods, the majority of efforts in this direction have been disappointing. To approve special units does not commit the teacher to any particular type of unit or method of teaching. There are curriculum units which, in a measure at least, measure up to the requirements of more progressive principles of teaching and curriculum building.

In the following chapters some of the methods of character instruction are considered. It has been difficult to find examples of these various methods which were not marked by survivals of less constructive procedures, but there is evidence that teachers are gradually moving toward the better ways of teaching. The limitations of these sample units will in most instances be obvious. In some cases, however, the attempt will be made to give constructive criticisms and warnings.

CHAPTER VIII

CASE-DISCUSSION APPROACH

Character has been defined as "doing the best possible thing in each situation." When character is so conceived, the program of character education becomes definitely interested in the daily choices of boys and girls and includes some method by which children can learn to make these choices more satisfactorily. The individual lives from day to day upon the basis of the routine of doing things in habitual ways. Then there comes a new situation which cannot be met satisfactorily upon the basis of the usual routine. The individual must choose between alternative forms of response to the situation. The problem of choice or the "life-situation" becomes the center of interest for both teacher and pupil interested in character development. Education takes place as the pupils, with the help of the teacher, meet situations and learn to solve problems in ways that are the most satisfying. A unit of experience, a life-situation, a concrete problem, raised into the consciousness of the pupil in order that he may learn to select intelligently the way of meeting such situations—this becomes the unit of learning.

Especially in schools which follow progressive methods the teacher and pupils meet many opportunities for co-operative problem-solving. Not all, however, of the significant situations of life arise thus in the routine of the school day. The case-discussion plan is a method by which the teacher brings to the attention of the class significant situations which do not arise naturally in the course of the school day.

PRINCIPLES OF THE CASE-DISCUSSION METHOD

The reader will be familiar with some of the publications of recent years which have contained "life-situations," "prob-

lems," or "case studies" to be used as the basis for class discussion. Some very satisfactory collections of such case studies have been prepared and teachers are finding them very valuable. One is impressed, however, by rather conflicting ideas of the method of using these materials. The writer has in mind the list of questions which is sometimes printed with the case studies as a guide for discussion. The nature of these questions tends to vary with the objective which is held for character education. If one conceives of character as conformity to conventional mores, then the discussion will probably be directed in such a way that the class will always come to the same conclusion as to the right course of action in the given situation. If character is thought of as an adjustment of the personality which will bring happiness and harmony, then the prevailing question in the consideration of any situation will be, "What course of action would be most satisfying?" The one who thinks of character in terms of traits or virtues will be asking such questions as: "What is the honest thing to do in this instance?" He who feels that "character consists of the ability to sacrifice the temporarily satisfying for the permanently satisfying, and the realization that in the world's good is one's own, while in one's own good is the world's"¹ will be concerned with the immediate and the distant results of each alternative form of action, and the results as related to others as well as to one's self. The popularity of the case-study method is probably due to the fact that it lends itself to use by all teachers regardless of conflicting ideas as to the ultimate aim of character education.

The *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence suggests that a synthesis of all the various objectives might constitute the standard for making decisions in any of the problematic situations of life.

¹ Carleton, Washburne, "Character in Two Dimensions," *Religious Education*, XXIII (October, 1928), 729.

Suppose that in important decisions every superintendent, every school board member, every principal and supervisor and pupil and parent, were accustomed to take all of the following things into account:

1. What would people generally approve?
2. What do my deepest convictions and loyalties demand?
3. Has this sort of conduct been found useful?
4. Does it serve the state, the cause, the world of humankind?
5. Is it based on the highest motives?
6. Does it conduce to harmonious adjustment in myself?
7. How far is each of the commonly accepted traits, virtues, and ideals in accord with the action?
8. Does it represent action in accord with principles which would be accepted by disinterested persons as rational?
9. Is it whole-hearted; concerned about the fullest life not only for myself but for others?
10. Does it represent a wise thing to do, a mature, intelligent, objective, fair decision in the light of an accurate discrimination of consequences?
11. Is it a beautiful way to live?
12. Is there sincere accord between inner purposes and the outward expression?
13. Is it the sort of thing which would be done by ideal persons?
14. Does it meet the full demands of the situation?
15. Does it lead out into creative and enlarging experience for all concerned?
16. Can some solution be found which will do all good things for all persons in a continuing fashion?

Few decisions offer time, opportunity, and importance to warrant so complete an analysis. In ordinary practice we would assume that all in the simple question, "Is it the best possible thing to do?" But one experience emphasizes one of the objectives, another experience brings out another. . . . The objective remains the discovery or creation of a way of living which conserves and produces as many values as possible for as many persons as possible over as long a time as possible.²

² Pp. 58-59.

Whether the situation under consideration arises naturally in the course of the day or is taken from a printed collection of cases, the method of solution is the same. The class discussion of a life-situation should be the duplication of the process of reflective thinking and should follow the steps in the thinking process. The steps which the mind naturally takes in the solution of perplexing problems may be presented through a simple illustration. A man is on his way to Boston on a business trip. His train into Albany is late and he is going to miss the Boston train. He has an appointment of very great importance. He might take the next train out of Albany but upon referring to his time table discovers that this train reaches Boston a half hour after the hour of his appointment. He could telegraph and have the appointment postponed until afternoon, which might make it inconvenient for some of the members of the committee that he is to meet. He could send word that he would be forty-five minutes late and then take a taxicab directly from the station to the place of the appointment. It might irritate the members of the committee if they had to delay the forty-five minutes, which would put them in an unhappy mood to consider his proposition. There is a third way to proceed. He could telegraph to Albany and arrange for an aeroplane to take him to Boston. This would make it possible to make his appointment on time but would entail considerable expense and a measure of risk. After considering all of the factors involved in the three alternative actions he is in position to make a decision and send the necessary telegrams.

The steps involved in solving this problem may be outlined as follows: (1) the consideration of the exact nature of his difficulty; (2) the analysis of the three possible ways of procedure, the probable results of each course of action, and the advantages and disadvantages of each; (3) the selection of one

mode of action as the best, in view of all the factors involved; (4) action in harmony with the final choice.

With these same four steps in mind, it is possible to outline a general plan for the teacher who is helping his pupils to analyze life-situations and to choose the finest course of action.

1. *Assist the pupils to appreciate the situation under consideration, and to be conscious of its importance and of the issues involved in it.*—There are many ways by which children can be interested in a situation which needs their attention. When a problem has arisen in the classroom or on the playground, this first step is already accomplished. There is a fight during the recess period, or someone has stolen Mary's pencil, or Henry's father has just lost his position because of the prevalence of unemployment—the pupils do not have to be made conscious of these problems. But not all problems will, or should, be brought to the attention of the class in this way. Some teachers only discuss problems when they arise but this is not a sufficient plan. If the teacher limits his attention to problems that come to the attention of the class in this way, there are many significant situations which will never be given consideration.³ Often the teacher must plan experiences (excursions, reading experiences, speakers from out of the group, etc.) which make the class aware of problems in the environment. The presentation of case studies often brings into conscious-

³ There is another factor to be considered in regard to the discussion of problems at the time that they arise. Often neither pupils nor teacher are in an emotional state to think constructively about a problem immediately after it has arisen. When this is true it is better to postpone consideration until another time, and possibly to introduce the matter with an imaginary case rather than with a reference to the actual problem that had arisen in the class. Such a method is conducive to more rational and less emotional consideration of the issues involved. There are, of course, many problems which arise in the class which can be most effectively considered at the time of occurrence.

ness problems which the pupil had hardly sensed before, and these case studies are of the greatest value in suggesting problems of daily experience or in anticipating future problems which may arise. The regular discussion of problems also provides a setting which encourages students to bring up for consideration problems not directly related to those that have been discussed. Careful utilization of problems that actually arise during the school day, experiences which bring pupils in touch with the problems of the social environment, case studies, and freedom of discussion, all prepare the way for the pupils to appreciate significant problems which concern their own lives.⁴

2. *Assist the class to analyze the situation with regard to possible modes of procedure.*—In a simple situation such as that of the business man on his way to Boston, it is not difficult to list the various alternatives, but, in the consideration of more complicated personal problems or of a social problem like that of poverty, the possible solutions could only be listed after a long period of investigation and study.

3. *Consider the results of each of the alternative modes of action.*—As far as possible, boys and girls should think of their choices in view of the possible outcomes. It is not possible to know all of the outcomes, but the pragmatic approach is helpful even when it is not entirely satisfying. Results which may not develop until in the future must be considered as well as the immediate results. The results to the entire circle of individuals who may be touched by the choice must be considered as well as the results to the person who is making the choice. Some teachers have used a rather mechanical method

⁴ A discussion of the factors that may prevent individuals from being conscious of the issues of a problematic nature, and of the methods of bringing these issues into consciousness, will be found in *Character through Creative Experience*, W. C. Bower (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930), pp. 78-84.

to bring together a summary of these possible results. The alternative modes of action have been listed across the black-board, and during the period of discussion the probable results of each mode of action have been listed in a column under each mode.

Too much cannot be said about the importance of the teacher allowing the pupils to discover these results for themselves. The teacher can direct them to the sources and share with them pertinent information, but the members of the class must think through to their own conclusions.⁵ In some way, this whole process must go deep enough into the thought and feelings of each individual so that the ultimate solution of the problem will be more than an answer to a puzzle. It must be accompanied by a feeling of dedication to the best course of action. This end is most likely to be achieved if there is freedom of investigation, opportunity for the expression of differences of opinion, and an opportunity for the pupils to come to their own final conclusions after a complete facing of the facts.

4. *The effort to consider the actual results of alternative modes of action may well be supplemented by a consideration of the traditional standards of action, the current attitude of society, the advice of authorities, and other guides to conduct which represent the accumulated experience of the race.*—Since it is not possible for the individual to anticipate completely the outcomes of any mode of action, certain rather indirect sources of guidance must be given consideration. It is not possible for any generation to throw aside all of the old standards of conduct, or for any individual to have such a complete, objective knowledge of actual results that he will not need to depend upon the

⁵ The functions of the teacher in this process are discussed by Bower, *ibid.*, pp. 183-89, as they apply to the teacher who assists children in case-discussions and to the teacher who assists them to find fruitful outcomes in all the ongoing situations of life.

opinions of those about him. The safest procedure is to consider knowledge of results as far as it is available, together with any opinions or practices which may suggest the most desirable solution.

5. *After careful consideration of the alternatives, the teacher should lead the class to a decision as to the most desirable choice or solution.*—If a problem is approached without bias and frank consideration given to items 3 and 4 above, the intelligent boy or girl should, in most instances at least, come to a rather satisfactory conclusion. The teacher is interested in developing in his pupils a habit of giving careful consideration to situations, more interested in this than in leading them to any particular solution in any particular situation. He can safely allow freedom in the final decision without being too much concerned if occasionally the children should select a mode of action which would not be his choice.

6. *The pupil will be better able to "generalize" the mode of action selected for a given situation if the consideration of a single situation is accompanied by the consideration of related experiences in the lives of the members of the class.*—The consideration of problematic situations should prepare the pupils to meet other situations that may arise in the future. When a satisfying outcome has been found for one situation, it should be easier to choose the satisfying outcome at another time. This will be more probable if the one case is used only as a stimulus to open up the related situations in the daily experience of the class members. The transfer of attention to the actual experience of class members adds interest to the process, and the consideration of several related cases prepares the class to formulate some generalizations as to the best solutions to the particular type of problem.⁶

⁶ For a more elaborate discussion of this method of problem-solving, the reader is referred to W. C. Bower, *ibid.*, particularly to pp. 107-23.

THE METHOD IN USE

Samples of the Case-Discussion Approach

Many case studies present problems that can be considered satisfactorily in a rather brief period of discussion. Of this type are the following:

- a) Mary sees her best friend, Jane, take a pencil from the teacher's desk during recess. She knows that Jane's father is out of work and not able to supply all of the needs of the family, but she is quite surprised that Jane would take someone else's pencil. What should she do? What would be the result if she told the teacher? If she told Jane's mother? If she talked with Jane and tried to get her to return the pencil? What else might she do to get the pencil returned and to make it unnecessary for Jane to steal again?
- b) Harry is supposed to play baseball with the North End Tigers on Saturday morning but when he awakens at 8:00 o'clock, he finds that his mother is not well and needs him to run errands at home. What should he do?
- c) A new pupil enters the class, from a distant city. What can the children do to make him feel at home in the school?
- d) Betty is allowed a piece of candy to eat either at lunch or at dinner time. One day her mother was out for dinner and Betty had dinner alone with her father. After the dessert Betty's father brought her the box of candy and offered her some. It happened that, unknown to her father, Betty had been given her piece at lunch and was not entitled to a second piece that day. It was a great temptation to take the piece her father offered. Should she take one since her father did not know that she had received her daily portion? Would it hurt her to have a second piece, for the one day? What influence would it have upon her habit of telling the truth at all times? What would you do under the circumstances?
- e) Jane, who was a junior in high school, had received a coveted honor by being elected a member of the Lotus Club. The membership of the club was limited to twenty-five and to be chosen

one of the group was an ambition of the three hundred girls of English High. Her election had come just in time for the Lotus Club's annual reception. Jane had many friends in English High, and she was puzzled over which to invite. It was her first Lotus Club reception, and she felt that her choice was a bit different than for an ordinary occasion. She first thought of Paul, who had taken her to her first high school reception. And there was Phil, who was to graduate this year with highest honors, and who spent much time helping her with Chemistry and Physics. Also, she wanted to ask John Howe, a neighbor friend, who was seldom invited to social affairs. Jane was trying to decide upon the one to invite as she walked home from school. Suddenly she was overtaken by Ralph, who asked her to go for a ride in his new automobile. During the hour's spin out into the country, through Old Fort park and to the road-side shop where they stopped for a soda, Ralph had told her of the many parties and dances he was to attend and of the trips to nearby towns in his car for the spring series of ball games and track meets in which their school would have a part. They came home by the beautiful river parkway, and while they drove up the street to her house Jane was thinking of what a delightful drive it had been and what fun such rides were. As she left the car she invited Ralph to the Lotus Club reception.

An analysis of the plan of discussion for this last case will suggest the procedure in others. The class might take each of the alternative choices and list the reasons why Jane might have made such a choice. Jane should have invited John Howe because:

1. It would have delighted him to attend the reception.
2. Her parents would have approved of her choice.
3. She owed a duty to her neighbor.
4. She would have put opportunity to serve before pleasure.
5. It might have been a means of developing John's life.
6. She would have been praised for inviting a friend whom it is likely others would not invite.

Paul should have been her choice because:

1. She was socially obligated to him.
2. Their friendship was of long standing.
3. She would not be open to the criticism of trying to show off if she went with an old friend.
4. Old friends are the truest companions.
5. It would show she had not been spoiled by being elected to the Lotus Club.
6. It would prove her appreciation of past favors.

Jane did right in selecting Ralph as her escort because:

1. There would be many good times for her later.
2. It was her privilege to invite any one she pleased.
3. A girl is expected to get as much pleasure as she can while young.
4. The good times he promised were wholesome and ones she enjoyed.
5. Automobile rides combine health and enjoyment.
6. One would be foolish to miss an opportunity for such pleasures as Ralph mentioned.

Jane should have selected Phil because:

1. Service is the basis of true friendship.
2. It was an opportunity to repay Phil for what he had done for her.
3. It would have been a distinction to go with an honor student.
4. Undoubtedly Phil would go to college next year, and this invitation would lead to receiving invitations to college functions.
5. She would be praised for choosing a companion of intellectual ability.
6. Phil's companionship would help her to become more interested in school work.

After each possible choice is so analyzed, a vote might be taken as to the best decision for Jane to make. Each member of the group should be given opportunity to present the reasons for his final decision. Following this, the next question of the discussion leader might be, "Have you ever had similar problems in the selection of friends and companions?" or it

might be worded less personally, "What similar problems do high-school students meet in the choice of friends and companions?" Following this second step, the third topic for group consideration should be "the general standards for the choice of friends and companions."

The longer type of unit which centers about a more complicated life-situation is illustrated by the following example from a high-school course in social science. The teacher presented to the class an account of a family of feeble-minded people with whom he had become acquainted. Because neither father nor mother was employed, they were being supported at public expense. Two of the four children were on the juvenile court probation list and had only recently been discharged from the juvenile detention home. The other two children were not succeeding in school and were irregular in attendance. It seemed to the class that this case could not be considered apart from the larger problem of the growing amount of mental defectiveness. It was suggested that discussion be delayed and that two or three volunteers should make a very careful study of the problem over a period of three or four weeks so that they could be the chief authorities on the subject when it was discussed. These students read books and periodicals, looked up pertinent statistics, investigated the work of child-guidance clinics, and made a visit to a state hospital for the insane that was located nearby. Two days before the topic was brought up in the class each pupil in the class was asked to read one reference which gave a summary of the problem and suggested solutions. When the topic was introduced the students who had made a special study gave reports of their findings. They covered the problem from the standpoint of: the number of defectives, the evidences of increase in recent years, the types of defectives and the causes of each, the types of service rendered them, the cost to society of this service, and the problems which are

as yet unsolved in the care of feeble-mindedness and mental disease. These reports together with the discussion which accompanied them occupied the class time for several days. It was possible to bring into the class for the last days of the unit a member of the school staff with training and experience in clinical psychology. He acted as "consulting specialist" as the class discussed the question, "What can be done about the problem?" From these last periods came the following suggestions: (1) There is need for specialists to devote their lives to further study of the causes of various types of defect. (2) Educational programs for mental defectives should be improved and extended with the hope of making the lives of defectives as happy and as little a burden to society as possible. (3) Clinical service for curable mental diseases should be extended and outstanding students should prepare for this field of service. (4) Public opinion must be developed so that people will think of mental illness as a disease to be treated rather than a disgrace to be kept secret. (5) Normal people should learn to practice mental hygiene. (6) Programs for limiting the reproduction of the unfit should be encouraged. (7) The selection of a mate should be done intelligently and in view of the physical and mental factors which make for a stronger race.

Mention has already been made of the use of the problems that arise during the routine of the school day as a basis for class discussion. The following discussion took place in a third-grade room in Detroit:

Problem: The older boys are playing handball in the courtyard back of the school. The younger boys stand around and watch them. Sometimes the younger children play ball too. Do you think that is a good place to play?

Pupil: I don't think it is a good place to play. The coal chute might be open and you could fall in.

Pupil: You might break a window.

Pupil: The coal trucks and delivery wagons stop in the courtyard. Children would be in their way.

Pupil: You could lose your ball on the roof or down the coal chute.

Pupil: Playing ball might hurt the younger children.

Pupil: We like to play handball, and we need a wall to throw the ball against.

Pupil: Couldn't just the older boys play? (Class agrees this wouldn't be fair.)

Pupil: Anyway that doesn't make it less dangerous. Even older children could be hurt at the coal chutes. (After summarizing the consequences of playing in the courtyard, the class agrees it is a dangerous place to play.)

Teacher: If we take away the courtyard as a place to play, what can we offer in its place?

Pupil: The children shouldn't come so early.

Pupil: That's all right for the morning, but some of the children stay for lunch. They have to have some place to play.

Pupil: They could use the playground or take a walk.

Pupil: The gym teacher is teaching the boys to play handball. They need practice.

Pupil: Handball isn't wrong. It's the place that's wrong. Couldn't we play against the walls of the portable buildings?

Pupil: It would disturb the teachers. They stay and work sometimes.

Pupil: We could make a big board and move it out on the playground. (The class agreeing upon the movable board, discussion was stopped until we could find out if the principal approved of this suggestion. However, the school engineer, knowing that the children were trying to find a place to play handball, suggested that one side of an old coal shed which was at the end of the playground should be mended and made a little longer. After this light repair work, the wall would be a good place to play handball. The engineer had even estimated the amount of lumber necessary to fix the shed. The older boys agreed to do the work, but the snow put a stop to playing ball and the matter was left to be reconsidered in the spring.)⁷

⁷ Detroit Teachers College, *Development of Character through Community Problem Solving* (Detroit: Detroit Teachers College, 1929), pp. 36-37.

Collections of Case Studies for Group Discussion

There are published collections of case studies and there are case studies which the teacher himself may collect. The latter are preferable in that they are less likely to seem artificial, they tend to keep the discussion in close touch with the daily experience of the class, and the gathering of studies stimulates the teacher to think more of the daily problems of his pupils. Published collections are only recommended to supplement what the teacher collects for himself. During recent years several collections of case studies have been published for use in discussion groups. It is not possible to give unqualified recommendation to any of these volumes, but several have points of merit in them. One of the first of these was a volume prepared for junior high school age, entitled *Right Living*, by Maurice J. Neuberg.⁸ This volume was widely criticized because the cases were often of rather trivial importance or the solution was so obvious that there was little stimulus to thinking. A later volume seems to have profited from this criticism and to be the more valuable of the two. This second volume, *Right Living*, Series II, has situations grouped under the following headings:

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Co-operation. | 8. Cleanliness. |
| 2. Vocational Guidance. | 9. Property. |
| 3. School. | 10. Gambling. |
| 4. Reading. | 11. Thrift. |
| 5. Sleep. | 12. Dependability. |
| 6. Home. | 13. Manners. |
| 7. Food, Drugs. | |

One feature of these volumes is worthy of particular recognition. In addition to the case studies and questions for discussion, there are helpful reference materials and suggested activities to accompany the discussion of the cases.

⁸ M. J. Neuberg, *Right Living* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925), 222 pages; *Teacher's Manual*, 75 pages.

Dewitt S. Morgan prepared a workbook for use particularly in junior high school civics classes, entitled *Case Studies for Classes in Civics*.⁹ This volume contains thirty-two problematic situations which were selected particularly from school life. Among the areas of experience represented are: school honor and school spirit, rules of the school, political methods in school elections, use and misuse of public property, the attitude of students toward wrongdoing, responsibilities of leadership, problems of friendship. It is questionable whether the individual workbook plan compares in value with the group-discussion method but these case studies have been found very usable for group discussions. Some have found it more valuable to plan their own questions rather than to use those which were placed in the volume.

The three volumes by Hague, Chalmers, and Kelly, *Studies in Conduct*, Books I, II, and III,¹⁰ are made up chiefly of stories, quotations from poetry, and biographical materials, grouped under the ten character traits of the Hutchins, "Moral Code for Youth." At the end of each chapter, however, there are several pages of life-situations for discussion. Each case study is briefly stated, but there is much of value in these pages which could be used by the teacher. Book I is designed for use in grades 3 and 4, Book II for grades 5 and 6, and Book III for grades 7 and 8.

A group of units which contain many case studies and other related materials which might be adopted for use in junior and senior high schools is being published by the Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church under the heading of

⁹ D. S. Morgan, *Case Studies for Classes in Civics* (Chicago: Laidlaw Bros., 1928).

¹⁰ E. F. Hague, Mary Chalmers, and M. A. Kelly, *Studies in Conduct*. Lincoln, Neb.: Book I, 1931, 340 pages; Book II, 1928, 404 pages; Book III, 1929, 500 pages.

Everyday Adventures in Christian Living.¹¹ The booklets in this series have been prepared by various individuals but particularly by Goodwin B. and Gladys H. Watson. Among the units in the series that might be of use to public schools are such as the following:

1. Money Problems.
2. Rules and Laws.
3. Cheating.
4. Quitting School.
5. Getting Along with Our Teachers.
6. Choosing Friends.
7. Cliques and Gangs.
8. Neighbors All (Interracial Friendliness).
9. Learning How To Live in the Country.
10. Learning How To Live in the City.

The most extensive published collection of case studies, as far as is known, is that published by Charters, Rice, and Beck under the heading *Conduct Problems*. There are five pupil's books, for grades 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8, and a *Teachers' Manual*.¹² The series covers a great variety of situations in school, home, and community life. Once again we must express doubt as to the value of arranging such material in the form of a workbook for pupils with blanks to be filled in after each case. The case studies will be of greater value if used to stimulate group thinking. Charters has been the leading exponent of the so-called "trait" theory of character education, and this theory has largely determined the type of questions which follow each case. Pupils must learn to choose their way in the

¹¹ A list of these booklets can be secured from the Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 740 Rush Street, Chicago, Illinois.

¹² W. W. Charters, M. F. Rice, and E. W. Beck, *Conduct Problems* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1931), Grade 4, 71 pages; Grade 5, 71 pages; Grade 6, 71 pages; Grade 7, 71 pages; Grade 8, 71 pages. *Teachers' Manual*, 22 pages.

problematic situations of life after taking into account many factors. The consideration of the traditional standards which may be represented by an abstract "trait" is not sufficient.

Chave's *The Junior*,¹³ pp. 45-88, contains a summary of the life-situations which were found most difficult for over 650 children, ages nine to eleven years.

Several school systems have published their own collections of "life-situations" for use in group discussion. The following can be mentioned as containing rather large collections:

Long Beach City Schools, *Character Education: Course of Study for Grades One, Two, Three, Four, Five, and Six*. Long Beach, Calif: Long Beach City Schools, 1929. 162 pages.

Detroit Public Schools, *Detroit Program of Character Education: Second Report of the Detroit Committee on Character Education*. Detroit: Detroit Board of Education, 1931. 191 pages.¹⁴

¹³ E. J. Chave, *The Junior* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925), 174 pages.

¹⁴ Chap. ii, pp. 53-54, contains samples of the case-discussion approach under the heading, "English Composition Topics with Implications in the Field of Character."

CHAPTER IX

INFORMAL CONVERSATION OR SOCIALIZED DISCUSSION

Another much-used method of character education is given various names—informal conversation, socialized discussion, creative discussion, group thinking, etc. The method is not entirely different from the “case discussion” approach which has just been given consideration. The “case discussion” method uses socialized discussion, and the best socialized discussions are centered about the actual situations of life. The most significant excuse for separating them at all is probably that two groups of people have worked rather independently in the development of the two related methods. There is a difference in that the socialized discussion does not make as much use of the case-study approach to discussion while it has certain other forms of procedure which have not been so much emphasized by the other school.

THE METHOD OF GROUP DISCUSSION

Several volumes have been written on the subject of the socialized discussion,¹ particularly as applied to adults and older adolescents, while its application to teaching in elemen-

¹ Among the best known of these volumes are the following: Boris B. Bogoslovsky, *The Technique of Controversy* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1928), 266 pages; S. A. Courtis, *Philosophy of Education for Teachers* (Ann Arbor, Mich: Edwards Bros., Inc., 1931), pp. 142-47; H. S. Elliott, *The Process of Group Thinking* (New York: Association Press, 1928), 229 pages; H. S. Elliott, *The Why and How of Group Discussion* (New York: Association Press, 1923); A. J. Gregg, *Group Leaders and Boy Character* (New York: Association Press, 1924), pp. 165-79. A. D. Sheffield, *Creative Discussion* (New York: The Inquiry, 1927), 63 pages.

tary grades is covered in volumes which deal with the teaching of pre-adolescent children. The procedure has been called a *thinking* process because it is supposed to follow the pattern of individual reflective thinking and to lead the entire group to engage in the process of reasoning. It has been called *creative* because at its best the members of the group temporarily set aside their traditional attitudes and prejudices and try to think through to an attitude which is based upon the facts involved in the matter under consideration. The process is not creative except as it leads individuals to new attitudes and opinions, and attitudes and opinions which are based upon a broader understanding of the issues involved. It is called *informal conversation* because it is more like the informality of friendly conversation than other methods. It is called *socialized* or *group discussion* because the individuals pool their opinions and experiences which relate to a particular topic under consideration and then join in a co-operative search for any additional information which may be pertinent. Perhaps the most distinctive contribution of "creative discussion" is that it gives to the individual experience and practice in genuine co-operation, in the production of an outcome from the group activity which is superior to that which could be secured by the same individuals working independently. The interaction of thought in the group, and the sharing of the varied experience of various individuals in the group, gives a basis for creative thought.

Harrison S. Elliott² develops his plan of group discussion from Dewey's analysis of the thinking process as:

1. A felt difficulty.
2. Its location and definition.
3. Suggestion of possible outcomes.
4. Development by reasoning of the bearings of the suggestions.

² H. S. Elliott, *The Process of Group Thinking*.

5. Further observation and experiment leading to its acceptance or rejection.³

Elliott's outline is as follows:

1. The situation and its problem:
 - a) What is the specific question to be decided?
 - b) What factors in the situation are important and must be taken into consideration in the decision? Why?
2. What to do?
 - a) Examination of possibilities:
 - "1" To meet the situation and problem as outlined, what are the possible courses of action and the reason for each?
 - "2" What bonds seem to unite the group and on what is there agreement as to fact and opinion?
 - "3" What are the chief differences:
 - "a" On matters of fact (as to what is true)?
 - "b" On matters of opinion or point of view (as to what is desirable)?
 - b) Exploration of differences of fact and discussion of differences of point of view:
 - "1" What are the data on differences as to facts?
 - "2" What can be said on differences as to point of view?
 - c) Reaching a conclusion:

What decision can be reached which will meet the situation with its relevant factors and what facts and opinions are the reasons for this decision?
3. How to do it (ways and means)?
 - a) What are the ways and means for putting the decision into effect?⁴

A distinction should be made between this type of discussion and argumentation or debate. Sheffield has pointed out the following distinctions:

³ John Dewey, *How We Think* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1910), p. 72.

⁴ Elliott, *The Process of Group Thinking*, p. 35.

1. A conference begins, not with a proposal calling for a show-down of choice but with a fresh look at the whole situation from different points of view.⁵
2. Instead of two sides a conference has as many sides as there are desires at stake. It hopes to achieve not a winning vote but a *solution*, a way of joint action that will enlist everybody concerned. This tends to avert wasteful combativeness. The speakers are there not to master opponents but to master a situation. They therefore avoid pointing blame and ridicule at people they disagree with, knowing that the conference will get further as a piece of human engineering if their language does not leave people sore.⁶
3. Where a debate makes much of logic, conference makes more of psychology. It deals not so much with arguments as with reasons. The distinction is important. A man's arguments are the reasons that recite well. They do his heart credit, and his logical head. His reasons—more truly so-called—are things that lie deeper. They are the meaning to him of his own experience, and invite first of all a real understanding. The "man convinced against his will" is one whose arguments have been refuted but whose reasons have not been touched.⁷

Briefly stated, the socialized discussion is not a battle of wits but a co-operative search for truth, and must not be allowed to shift its point of emphasis. Debating may be used as a step in this process of searching for truth providing the debaters do not lose themselves in the desire to win the debate or to prove the supremacy of their side of the argument.

The reader is referred to the sources mentioned above for detailed suggestions as to the techniques of leading group discussions. It is not an easy process to direct such discussions in really creative paths, and is worthy of careful study and practice. Teachers vary in their ability to stimulate thought, to help the group analyze problems and come to decisions, in

⁵ A. D. Sheffield, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 27.

⁷ Sheffield, *ibid.*, pp. 28-29.

their ability to help the group see the relationship of the discussion to their own experience, etc. It is essential, as a minimum, for the leader of discussion to:

1. Have a purpose and plan in mind before the beginning of the discussion.
2. Guide toward that end but not to force the group to his own conclusions.
3. Guard against digressions that may be interesting but irrelevant to the problem under consideration.
4. Keep the discussion centered about life-situations rather than abstract issues.
5. Give each person opportunity to express his own opinion and to share information from his own past experience.
6. Take no more part in the discussion than is necessary to guide it along constructive lines.
7. Contribute through questions, supplementary facts, and occasional summaries of the progress of thought.
8. Lead the discussion toward certain generalizations or principles which the members of the group will be capable of applying in various situations which resemble those which have been discussed.
9. Avoid the danger of going so deeply into a question that members of the group will be left with questions they cannot answer. This does not mean that with older groups, particularly, it may not sometimes be well to present the facts and allow the members of the group to come to a conclusion at a later time.

There are two suggestions in this list which merit careful consideration. In the first place, the statement is made that the discussion should be "centered about life-situations rather than abstract generalities." Unfortunately many teachers center their discussions about abstract principles or characteristics of life rather than the actual life-situations which they represent. These limitations are very obvious as we think of the discussion method as a thinking process. In daily life we think when we meet problematic situations, when our desires

are blocked or our plans uncertain. When the routine way of doing things is interrupted we are forced to ask ourselves, "What shall we do about it?" and the thinking process is in operation. The life-situation which demands the choice between alternative ways of action is the natural stimulus to the thinking process.

The second suggestion is implicit rather than specifically mentioned in the list of nine items. It is implied that the value of group discussion is determined by the amount and quality of independent, individual thinking which it stimulates in the members of the group and by the degree to which the group is able to succeed in co-operative problem solving, rather than by the smoothness with which the discussion proceeds. This implication is present in the statements that the leader "not force the group to his own conclusions," that he "give each person opportunity to express his own opinion," that he "take no more part in the discussion than is necessary," and that he "make his contributions through questions, supplementary facts, and occasional summaries" rather than through statements of his own opinions and conclusions.

If the teacher has his pupils memorize facts without understanding their social significance; if the teacher, when using the discussion method, allows only one side of a question to be presented; if sources are not carefully evaluated and carefully quoted; if generalizations are based on opinions when facts are available—if any, or all, of these inappropriate procedures are used, the pupils will not develop, as they might, the ability to organize for mutual welfare, open-mindedness toward wholesome changes in the social order, independent and intelligent analysis of problems, intelligent search for and evaluation of data, the tendency to base their generalizations upon facts, and training in the method of discussion.⁸

There is a problem that arises in the teaching process whenever the accepted standards and ways of living are frankly

⁸ *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, p. 199.

criticized. Those who believe in conformity in all areas of life are in perpetual conflict with those who, in the words of Goodwin Watson, show "not only tolerance but admiration for differences in taste."⁹ The statement in the *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence suggests that "traditionally 'safe' subjects may be 'dangerous' in the future."

It is entirely possible that the schools are nearing the time when it will be less dangerous to build a curriculum which will attack these problems than it will be not to do so. It is entirely conceivable that if schools insist upon limiting their function to attempting to teach pupils only in matters so academic as to have little or no direct bearing on the real social problems which people have to meet in some way or another, the public confidence and support which schools have thus far enjoyed to a remarkable degree may be lost. It requires no unusual power of imagination to believe that the time may soon arrive when society will be more ready to support schools which deal with matters which are crucial, perhaps "dangerous," than schools which deal with only those things which are "safe" but of little or no functional value in a world of realities. It is quite reasonable to believe that the dangers which are anticipated for such a curriculum may be only chimeras. Inadequate analysis of the problems involved has here, as elsewhere, bred unwarranted fear. . . .

While controversial issues of social life should define certain of the materials of the good curriculum, this does not mean that the schools should teach children what to think regarding these issues. Indeed such indoctrination would be contrary to the very spirit which demands a study of such issues. The understanding that such indoctrination would defeat the very purpose of education makes the problem of centering the curriculum in the social studies more approachable. *To think*, not *what* to think, is the good curriculum's objective for the child.

⁹ From the outline of an address "Adapting Schools to the Dawning Civilization," delivered to the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, Detroit, February, 1931 (*Addresses and Proceedings*, 1931, LXIX [Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1931], 779).

The fact that a significant beginning has been made during the past ten years in the production and use in the public schools of materials dealing with many of the issues indicated in this chapter¹⁰ and that hundreds of schools have put these into use in the classroom should give courage to those who are inclined to hesitate. Again there can be little doubt that times of stress make possible the sane consideration of controversial issues in a way that is impossible when "all is well" on the economic front of American life. "One never knows how much the pressure of need may create or develop hitherto unsuspected resources of reason and imagination."¹¹

This thinking process is one which should be practiced in all phases of the curriculum. It is not the solution of any specific questions that chiefly concerns the teacher, but that the pupil learn a technique by which he will be fitted to meet whatever situations may arise. We want each individual to learn the process of creative thinking, both individual and group thinking. This process will be practiced in so-called character education units but should also be practiced in other aspects of the curriculum. As Courtis has said:

. . . . The teacher's goal ought to be the development of critical power. Criticism should be continuous and constant. One must criticize his writing, his spelling, his choice of words, his plan of activity, his progress, etc., etc., at each instant of time. . . . Note particularly that ideals arise as a result of (1) the perception of differences in the consequences of action and (2) the comparison of such differences as to their satisfyingness.¹²

ILLUSTRATIONS

Informal Conversation with Young Children

Amelia McLester gives us a group of stenographic reports of the type of free discussion periods which skilful teachers

¹⁰ See chap. vi of the *Tenth Yearbook*.

¹¹ *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, p. 191.

¹² S. A. Courtis, *Philosophy of Education for Teachers* (Ann Arbor, Mich.: Edwards Bros., Inc., 1931), pp. 109-10.

have with children in the early elementary grades.¹³ The following is one of the samples which she gives:

The situation: On the playground the children were snatching one another's hats and throwing them about. They were asked not to play in that way. When we went indoors we had the following discussion:

Question: Can you think of any reason why I asked you not to throw each other's hats about when we were on the playground today?

Ned: Without a hat on you might catch cold and get sick and die.

Rachel: You might ruin them. You might drop them and step on them.

Question: Why shouldn't you step on them?

Rachel: Because it might be the child's best hat and the child's mother and father can't get him any more.

Helen: It might be a hat that couldn't be washed and you might not be able to brush the dirt out.

Julien: If you did something to it you might have to pay for it.

Question: If we injure anything that belongs to some one else should we pay for it?

Julien: Yes.

Question: Why?

Julien: Because it wouldn't be fair for us to do something and then somebody else have to pay for it.

Question: Who gives you your clothes?

Janet: Your mother and father, and if they are poor they might not be able to buy you some more.

Teacher: Suppose we just talk about ourselves. We are not very poor nor very rich, but why should we take care of our clothes?

Janet: Because we ought to be thankful that we have such nice clothes.

Ned: I think, because clothes cost money and some suits might cost a dollar—these corduroy pants cost a dollar.

¹³ Amelia McLester, *The Development of Character Traits in Young Children* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1931), 126 pages.

Question: Ned has a little brother and a little sister. What happens in his family if he doesn't care for his clothes?

Rachel: They might see him doing it and they might try it. My sister copies everything I do.

Helen: So does Buddie.

Question: What else might happen if we don't take care of the things that are bought for us?

Julien: There wouldn't be any money left for food and things.

Janet: Miss McLester, you tell us what you think.

Several children: Yes, you tell us.

Teacher: I shall in a few minutes, but let me ask you several more questions first. Do you ever hear your father and mother say that they are tired at night?

Ned: Yes, my father is awful tired sometimes and my mother is tired most all the time.

Question: Why are they tired?

Herman: Because they have been working all day.

Question: Why do your mothers and fathers have to work?

Herman: To get money to buy things with.

Teacher: Well, you asked me that I think about this and I shall tell you. It seems to me that if your father has to work to make money to buy you nice clothes and your mothers work to keep them clean and mended, you should show that you appreciate what they do for you by taking care of the things they give you. We should not only take care of our own things, but we should also try to help other children take care of the things that their mothers and fathers give to them.¹⁴

One is often surprised by the type of subjects which arise in informal discussion with children. A volume entitled *Exploring Religion with Eight Year Olds*, by Sweet and Fahs,¹⁵ re-

¹⁴ McLester, *ibid.*, pp. 40-42.

¹⁵ H. M. Sweet and S. L. Fahs, *Exploring Religion with Eight Year Olds* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1930), 283 pages. Although these discussions took place in a church school, many of them are on subjects that do arise in public schools. It is an excellent volume as an illustration of the method of discussion as used with elementary children.

ports several conversations on significant social issues. Problems of labor and capital, working conditions in factories, war, famines and floods in the Orient, and the industrial and political experiment in Russia were given consideration by these eight-year-olds. The following report is typical:

Mr. Knebel raised the question of the basis on which wages should be paid, or privileges and rewards given. Should people receive only what they need, regardless of their earning power? He told a story of a boy of eleven, whose father rewarded him for a week's chores with a ticket to the circus. On the other hand, the boy's little sister was allowed to go to the circus without doing any work at all. In contrast to this way of dealing with his own children, the father, the owner of a soap box factory, refused the plea of his workmen for higher wages. His philosophy was that men should be paid exactly what they earned and no more.

Mr. Knebel also told Jesus's parable of the workers in the vineyard who were all rewarded alike even though some had worked all day whereas others had worked but one hour. . . .

Following this (the handwork) period there was a discussion of the chapel talk.

Jean said, "Well, he didn't finish the story." This was interesting since Mr. Knebel considered his story as properly ended.

The teacher, without debating the point, said, "Well, let's finish the story now. How do you think it should have ended? Do you think the little sister should have been allowed to go to the circus even if she didn't earn the money for her ticket?"

"No, I think she should have earned the money as well as her brother. Girls can do things," said James.

The teacher asked the girls what they thought.

Jean said, "I did lots of work when I was seven. I made beds and helped with dishes and lots of things."

"Mercy, so did I," added Ruth. "I had to take care of my own room when I was seven. I should think there were lots of things the little girl could have done to earn the money for her circus ticket."

The teacher admitted that perhaps the little girl in that story might have done something to earn money for the circus ticket.

There was, however, another question to be raised. Was it possible for people to earn money to pay for everything they need? She asked the children if they felt that they earned all the privileges their parents gave them, or whether they thought parents did some things because their children needed those things even though the children hadn't really earned them. The class agreed that many of the things done for them were not earned.

James said, "But now you take factories. If you pay the men what they think they need they'll just be going around saying, 'I need, need, need this and that and everything' and then they will just drive everybody crazy. I think you ought to pay people what they earn and not be so romantic about it."

"Oh, you use big words and don't know what they mean," Philip retorted.

"I guess I do know what they mean," said James.

"Well, I think you ought to decide what to pay people by what they need," was John's clear-cut decision. Turning to James, he said, "What if you were the person? Would you want people to pay you just what they thought was enough and not even ask you how much you should have?"

"If I owned a factory this is what I would do?" James began. "I would call in my workers and ask them how much they thought they ought to get. Then I would tell them my side of the story and see if I could pay them what they thought they should get."

The teacher asked James how he thought the workers would judge the amount they ought to receive unless it was according to their needs. She also explained to the children that "need" did not mean a person's wish for anything that he could think of, such as taking trips to Europe every summer. She tried to explain what a reasonable need would be.

"Well, that's all right then," said James, "but if you just say give them what they need, they'll take and take and take and then it will be the owner I will feel sorry for."

Elizabeth said, "My father says that the more you give the workers the more they think they need, so you have to be careful."

"Some people always get left," said Ruth. "My sister always takes more than her share and I have an awful time. We made jelly once and she ate nearly all of it."

The children finally decided that what a person might be allowed to earn ought to be dependent upon his needs, that the amount of wages to be paid ought to be intelligently worked out, and that after both these had been decided upon, workers should take what they earn without complaint.¹⁶

Discussion Groups in Junior and Senior High School

An hour a week set aside when students of like interests can get together with an open-minded and sympathetic teacher to talk informally about any subject that may happen to be uppermost in their thought can be productive of great good. The most effective groups are not bound too slavishly to any list of problems or plan of discussion but are allowed to follow from week to week the trend of interests of the constituency. This does not mean that the leader will not have to spend time from week to week hunting up helpful materials in answer to problems raised, but that the plans for the group will develop with group interests.

Debate

Debating is a form of socialized discussion and can be used as a means of character emphasis in the school. Many of the topics suggested for English compositions in an earlier chapter of this volume may be re-worded in the form of propositions for debate.¹⁷ Valuable lists of debate topics will be found in the following volumes:

Carpenter, O. C., *Debate Outlines on Public Questions* (New York: Minton, Balch & Co., 1932). Pp. 329.

Foster, W. T., *Argumentation and Debating* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1932), pp. 433-47.

Foster, W. T., *Debating for Boys* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1924), pp. 141-52.

Hardy, C. D., *Youth and Debating*, Prepared for the Committee on Religious Education of Youth (Chicago: International Council of Religious Education, 1928), pp. 32-36.

¹⁶ Sweet and Fahs, *ibid.*, pp. 147-50.

¹⁷ Pp. 48-55.

Phelps, Edith M., *Debate Index* (New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1932), pp. 7-110.

Winans, J. A., *Public Speaking* (New York: Century Co., 1917), pp. 360-68.

Materials for Group Discussion

The teacher should experience no difficulty in securing materials for group discussions in junior and senior high school because of the abundance of materials and number of organizations that are publishing them. Lists of topics and problems often raised in adolescent groups will be found in the following sources:

Espey, Clara E., *Leaders of Girls* (New York: Abingdon Press, 1915), pp. 129-36.

Evans, Evan E., and Hallman, M. S., *Home Rooms* (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1930), pp. 43-146.

Germaine, C. E., and E. G., *Character Education* (New York: Silver Burdett, 1929), pp. 192-207, 210-11.

Gregg, A. J., *Group Leaders and Boy Character* (New York: Association Press, 1924), pp. 183-88, 225-27.

McKown, Harry C., *School Clubs* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1929), pp. 433-55.

Roemer, Joseph, and Allen, C. E., *Readings in Extracurricular Activities* (Richmond, Va.: Johnson Publishing Co., 1929), pp. 204-17.

Young Women's Christian Association, *The Girl Reserve Movement* (New York: Woman's Press, 1923), pp. 373-93, 398-400.

A listing of the problems of children ages nine, ten, and eleven years of age will be found in E. J. Chave, *The Junior* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925), pp. 45-88.

Materials can be secured from the following sources, among others too numerous to mention:

The Inquiry, 129 East 52nd Street, New York City.

Young Men's Christian Association, Association Press, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.

Young Women's Christian Association, Woman's Press, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City.

Publishing houses of the various religious denominations.

Any of the organizations mentioned will be willing to co-operate with the teacher in securing publications which are suitable for use in public school groups. Sources such as the H. W. Wilson Company (New York City), the Debaters Information Bureau (Portland, Me.), the Bureau of Economic Research (New York City), the National Research Bureau (Chicago), the Editorial Research Bureau (Washington, D.C.), and the extension bureaus of state universities have been helpful in supplying debating materials.

John A. Hockett has prepared a very comprehensive tabulation of the major social problems which demand attention. This tabulation of 396 problems is based upon an analysis of twenty-two volumes by the leading thinkers on social issues, the current events in the *Literary Digest* from January, 1920, to December, 1925, and the editorials in the *Outlook*, the *Independent*, the *New Republic*, and the *Nation* during the same six-year period. It is published under the following title:¹⁸

Hockett, J. A., *A Determination of the Major Social Problems of American Life*. Contributions to Education, No. 281. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. Pp. 101.

¹⁸ Chapter ii contains samples of the discussion method under the following headings:

"Authors and Their Philosophy of Life."

"Character Studies of Men and Women in Fiction."

"Discussion of Current Events."

"Outside or Supplementary Reading."

"The Lives of Great Men."

"By-products of an Indian Life Project."

Suggestions for discussion topics will be found under the headings, "English Composition Topics with Implications in the Field of Character" and "English Composition Topics To Aid in Vocational Adjustment."

CHAPTER X

THE RESEARCH PROCESS AS A METHOD OF TEACHING

The significance of inner motivation in the teaching process is widely recognized among educators. This significance has been expressed by one recent writer in the statement that "if the method of teaching is to be effective, it must be of the type which develops the greatest amount of inner drive or purposing, inasmuch as this produces a real interest in playing the game, which in turn causes the learner to put forth stronger efforts to manipulate the materials so as to win."¹ One of the methods which "develops the greatest amount of inner drive or purposing" is to let the pupils discover for themselves the problems and causes which demand attention. The research worker feels the significance of his findings far more than does the average individual who merely reads or is told about the findings. There are many ways by which the teacher can introduce the pupils to facts of great personal and social significance by enlisting them in research or fact-finding projects.

VALUES OF PARTICIPATION IN A RESEARCH PROCESS

These studies are of value in three general ways: (1) they attract attention to matters which need attention, (2) they bring the pupil in touch with significant facts and the opinions of other people with regard to problems in which he is already interested, and (3) they give the child direct experience with the process of scientific thinking in the solution of a problem. The variety of fields which may be suitable for the research of boys and girls is so great that a classification would be

¹ L. Thomas Hopkins, *Curriculum Principles and Practices* (Chicago: Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co., 1929), p. 181.

meaningless. The few samples will suggest other similar investigations which might be followed.

The enthusiasms which students show in participating in such a process is evidence of its value. After a group of high-school students had spent from one to three hours daily for four months assisting in a study of extra-curriculum and recreational activities, they were asked this question, "Which would you prefer to do: to participate in another study like the one we have just completed or to have the regular classroom work? Why or why not?" They gave the following reasons for desiring to participate in another project as a part of their school program for the second semester of the school year.² Their statements suggest both their enthusiasm and the importance they attached to findings which they had made for themselves.

1. It deals with real life interests. In their words, we find such statements as this:

"I like to know other pupils' opinions on problems that happen every day in my own life."

"(It is) a real study of American boys and girls."

"(It gives an opportunity to) learn what your fellow students are doing outside of school and in school, what they enjoy and what they don't."

"It is more interesting as it affects our daily life. . . . Most students nowadays are not particularly interested in the history of what has happened. They want to know what is happening today that concerns them."

2. It gives one an opportunity to "check-up" on himself.

"It deals with the High School student and so it deals with us. . . . It shows us things we do wrong and helps us to correct them and suggest new ways of recreation."

"It may help to make us better students."

"(You) learn how to spend your time correctly."

² These statements were given to the regular classroom teacher—not to the one who had sponsored the research.

"We must . . . be able to pick the right kind of recreation so that we can get the most rest and enjoyment and keep in good physical condition so that we can work better."

"(It is more valuable) because it would solve my own present difficulties more than regular class work."

3. It requires thinking on the part of the student.

"It give(s) you a problem of your own to work out."

"It broadens one's mind."

"It has made me think. . . . Maybe a study like this worked out by all high school pupils in one class for at least one semester would make them plan their activities."

4. It is more interesting and relieves the routine and monotony of regular school work. The following quotations are typical:

"I hate anything routine and plain class work is just that."

"This kind of work is not so monotonous. . . and when work is not so monotonous the student will do more work in the class."

"This work is snappy."

5. The student gets more good from it.

"It seems I get more out of it."

"It seems to amount to more. . . ."

6. This work is valuable for others.

"(It) may prove a help to young people of today."

"It is very interesting and self-satisfying to be a help in any research from which some good will come."

7. It "really isn't so complicated as school work."

8. It is conducive to an orderly class.

"It seemed the days we worked for Mr. H. there wasn't any disorder."³

UNITS WHICH INVOLVED RESEARCH

A Service Project Based upon a Knowledge of the Need

Wilson M. Brazier, a student, reports a project which was effective in helping the students in several schools to appreciate the needs of residents in mining communities.

³ K. L. Heaton, *A Study of the Recreational Life of High School Students* (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1931), pp. 9-10.

Following an appeal made by the American Friends' Service Committee for clothing and books to be given to the poverty-stricken colonies in the bituminous mining districts, a number of Quaker Schools sent delegates into the stricken areas to find out exactly what needs existed. One instructor and four or five boys and girls were sent from each of the following schools, which are located about Philadelphia: Westtown School, Moorestown Friends' School, Germantown Friends' School, George School, and Friends' Central School.

The representatives from the different schools left at noon on October 28th and drove about three hundred miles to meet at Morgantown, West Virginia, on the following day. After luncheon the entire group was met by Miss Alice Davis, who represents the American Friends' Service Committee in that section. The delegations were divided into groups, and an attempt was made to have in each group only one representative from each school. This was done so that every student might cover all the territory. These groups visited the mining settlements of Maidsville, Crown, Bertha Hill, Jere, Pursglove and Osage.

As official visitors from Quaker School, it was possible for the delegates to see just what privation existed in the schools and in the homes. After supper of the first evening the delegations gave a moving-picture show for the local children in an empty store in Pursglove. About three hundred children were packed into a small one-story building for this rare treat. Most of them had never seen moving pictures before. On Friday morning the group visited the coal fields again and after lunch the entire delegation was addressed by Mr. Villard. A visit to the coal mine at Crown gave the visitors a chance to see the conditions under which the miners work.

Upon their return home the delegations, by various methods, conveyed to other students in their schools their ideas of the situation as they found it. Nearly all of the schools had their representatives speak in school assembly, while some had them address clubs within the school. All of the schools are preparing moving pictures of the trip, while students in a number of schools are collecting funds, clothing, and books to send to the stricken areas. One visit-

ing school has "adopted" the Maidsville School and is sending all their gifts to it.⁴

Such a project as that described above has certain advantages over one which merely consists of the raising of money for charity or the sending of any type of gift. If the situation in the mining district had been described to the children and then a collection taken or other type of service planned, the group would have missed the opportunity to see at first-hand one of the social problems of the district. The first-hand experience would never be forgotten by the students who made the trip. The Young Men's and the Young Women's Christian Associations have for several years planned summer employment in places of social need, for college students. These young college people have lived and worked in the tenement districts of the large cities, held typical positions in the midst of undesirable working conditions, and have visited the sore spots of the communities. These experiences have been responsible for changing the whole viewpoint of some of these men and women and throughout life they will carry the impression of a few weeks of contact with another portion of society.

Many people, of whatever age, will be prompted to unselfish forms of expression if they appreciate the needs for their service, while they will not respond to an unidentified appeal for charity. Some of the Character Education Inquiry experiments were planned to find out the motives which encourage unselfish service. In one instance the following procedure was used in an institution for homeless children. Just preceding one of the rare occasions when these children had ice cream for dessert, the principal of the home made a carefully prepared statement to the pupils:

BOYS AND GIRLS: A few days ago a friend came to see me and Dr. M. and said he wanted to do something for you children. Dr.

⁴ *Progressive Education*, IX (January, 1932), 58-59.

M. suggested that he treat you to ice cream. At this I made a wry face and said: "I think Dr. M. spoils you children by allowing you so much ice cream and sweets. Let's have the money and use it as we see fit." But as usual Dr. M. had his own way and the friend agreed to give you a treat of ice cream.

Now each of you is entitled to a plate of ice cream. Please understand that. But I had a purpose in asking you to bring your pencils this morning or I wouldn't have asked you. First write your name on the slip of paper that is being passed out. Then write "Yes" or "No" to the question I am going to ask you. How many of you would be willing to give up your ice cream for a charitable cause? If you are willing to give it up, write "Yes"; if not, write "No." It doesn't make a particle of difference to me which you write. I shan't even keep track of it. This ice cream costs about five or six cents per plate. Understand now. If you want to give it up and let the money go to a charitable cause, write "Yes"; if not, write "No." It's your ice cream; so do as you please.⁵

After the first ballot was taken the principal said:

Children, every time I try to run off a ballot of this kind I have to do it twice or more before I get it right. I expected this today and provided an extra set of slips. I notice there are one or two slips here without names on them. There may be others; so I think we should do it over and get it right. Now please everybody put your name on the first thing you do. It occurs to me that I should tell you to what charity this money is going. If you have read the papers, and you all get the Sunday paper, you may have noticed that there is a fund being collected for the suffering Jewish children in Russia. I propose to send what money we collect to that fund. These Jewish children in Russia are starving. They do not have even bread, much less ice cream. Probably some day we shall receive a letter from these children stating their appreciation. Will the teachers pass out the slips?⁶

⁵ Hugh Hartshorne, Mark A. May, and Julius B. Maller, *Studies in Service and Self-Control* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1929), p. 34. By permission of the Macmillan Company, publishers.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 35.

After the second ballot was collected, the principal said:

There is always a joy in giving. You feel happier when you have given something. I know that those of you who have given must feel happy about it. I want to thank those who have so generously given up their ice cream that the starving children of Russia might have bread.

If there are any here who would like to change their ballots, they may do so by coming to my office any time today before twelve o'clock.⁷

The results of this experiment suggest the importance of the different types of appeal:

The first statement made to the children was a matter-of-fact announcement offering them the opportunity of giving to charity the cost of the ice cream they were about to receive. More than half (53.5%) of these institutional children, for whom ice cream was an unusual treat, signed away their dessert. On the second appeal, which stated the object to which the money would be sent, 35.6% came in, making 89%; and after the final statement, in which the principal spoke of the joy of giving and the gratitude of the Russian children, 5% more said they would do without their cream, bringing the total to 94%.⁸

If the children could have seen for themselves the need of the Russian children and the gratitude they felt for each gift received, the impulse to give would have been even greater. The nearer one feels to the object of service, the greater the motive to render service.

Searching for Golden Deeds

During the superintendency of M. A. Cassidy there was introduced in the schools of Lexington, Kentucky, what was called the "Golden Deeds" system of character education. Ten or fifteen minutes was devoted each day to the reporting and the discussion of the good deeds which the pupils have

⁷ *Ibid.*

⁸ *Ibid.*

noticed in their reading and study, in current happenings, and in their own contact with the life of others. After the discussion of each Golden Deed a vote was taken and those which received the majority vote were recorded in a book of "Golden Deeds" which was kept in each grade. In the lower grades the books were filled with pictures because they seemed to be a more graphic form of expression than written accounts of the good deeds.⁹

Various modifications of Superintendent Cassidy's plan have been used in other school systems. When it was used in the fourth-grade rooms of the Pontiac schools the pupils selected a different field of observation for each week during the semester in order to broaden the scope of interest. Some of the sources from which good deeds were gathered were:

- a) The playground.
- b) Occurrences on the way to and from school.
- c) Deeds of parents or brothers and sisters.
- d) What is seen at the grocery store.
- e) Deeds of neighbors of foreign parentage.
- f) Examples from the classroom.
- g) Examples from stories that have been heard.
- h) Stories from supplementary readers.
- i) Examples from church school lessons.

Often the teacher could so direct the interest of the class that it would bring direct help in relieving some immediate need of her class. When problems arose on the playground, for example, it was helpful to direct the attention of the class to the fine characteristics displayed during recess and physical education periods. When there was evidence of antagonism against foreign-born people, especial emphasis was placed upon the contributions of other nationalities to our own life and upon the fine personal characteristics of the people.

⁹ M. A. Cassidy, *Golden Deeds of Character Education* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1921), 91 pages.

An especial effort was made in using this plan in the Pontiac schools to direct the discussion of the good deeds in such a way that it would help the pupils to set up certain general standards for evaluation. It is easy to say that an outstanding act is praiseworthy, but the child is not necessarily able to gain encouragement and skill in choosing the praiseworthy acts for himself. The following skeleton suggests the type of questions which were often used to direct discussion. It is only a skeleton, however, and had to be presented in the form of concrete sentences.

- a) Why is this deed worthy of praise?
- b) What good was accomplished?
- c) Was any life made more happy, more ambitious or more worthwhile?
- d) What effect did it have on the one who did the deed?
- e) Why did he do this thing? Was it, for example, a deed of service done purely for the sake of the one served or to "show off" and get recognition?
- f) What else could he have done in the situation? •
- g) Did he do the very best thing that he could have done in the situation?
- h) Do we ever have an opportunity to do similar deeds? When?

There are certain difficulties which accompany any such teaching plan as that described above. There is a tendency to put too much emphasis upon the number of entries made in the book, or on the bulletin board, or other form of record. This is not important. The objective is to help each child to develop a habit of looking for the best of life, for the finest motives and ways of living. The teacher will have to be on her guard lest the pupils feel that they must make a contribution even when there is nothing to report. Neither must the project become a contest in which each tries to tell the most unusual stories. The unusual incident may be less worthy of consideration just because it holds up an ideal which there will be little opportunity to achieve.

In some instances the pupils report trivialities. This can be helped in part by giving samples of what should be credited and by proposing to the children the sources from which the good deeds are to be sought for the first week. It is not a waste of time at the first of the semester, however, to allow the children to report any of the simple instances which they see, even if they are trivial and duplicate one another. The fact that the children have something to report will add interest to the project. After the idea is introduced, the plan can be developed further and the work made more constructive. If the individual pupil is always reporting trivialities, the teacher should make it her duty to help him to find something really worth while to report in order that he may really catch the spirit and feel that he has a part in the project.

The child must have the joy of discovery for himself if he is to profit from the study. The teacher should help the child who does not discover the good deeds by directing his attention to probable sources. She should not find all of the good deeds herself. She may put in the pupil's hands a supplementary reader or collection of stories in which he is likely to find something worthy of reporting. She may take time to talk over with the pupil some of the experiences he has had on the playground, in the schoolroom, at home, or elsewhere, that illustrate the good deeds of his friends and relatives.

The emphasis should be upon the reporting of the good deeds of others rather than of one's self or of the others in the class. Such a teaching procedure can achieve the best results if the child does not think too much of himself but develops a habit of appreciating the good in those outside his own immediate circle of friends.

Building a School Creed

The building of a school creed or code of conduct is often valuable in that it directs the attention of the pupils to the highest forms of school citizenship. This plan has been most

valuable in schools in which there has been the most opportunity for frank discussion of the essentials of citizenship and in which it has been a part of a general plan for pupil participation in school government. Each part of the code should be considered in small classes or home-room groups. Students should be encouraged to express differing opinions and to object to any requirements which seem to them to be unnecessary. These differences in opinion should be referred to some central committee which includes both student and faculty members, and if the differences still exist after frank discussion throughout the school the majority opinion should prevail. The code should be expressed in terms of concrete forms of conduct, or should at least be put into general terms only after careful consideration of its implications in terms of concrete forms of conduct. The code itself is not as important as the thinking process that takes place while the code is being formulated. For this reason the process of thinking should not be hurried.

After the creed is completed, its period of greatest usefulness is over. The preparation of a school creed to be passed down through the years is not recommended. Each class should have the experience of formulating its own goals and ideals.

The use of the creeds of others is, also, of limited value. Many very beautifully worded codes and creeds have been formulated and have been incorporated in plans for character education. Their value is not to be confused with the value of formulated statements which have grown out of the thinking of the particular group of students.

Tests and Rating Scales as Teaching Devices

Mention is made elsewhere¹⁰ of available tests, questionnaires, and rating scales, which are being used to measure

¹⁰ Pp. 295-98.

various phases of character. These instruments can, in some instances, be used as teaching devices. Tests of attitudes, and various questionnaires to determine the opinions of the group on current issues, can be so used. The procedure is usually somewhat as follows:¹¹ The test is administered to the members of the group and then the various parts of it taken up for group discussion. The students are interested in the tabulated scores in order that they may compare their opinions with those of others. They are particularly interested in the reasons for differences of opinion as expressed by various individuals.

These instruments may be illustrated by a few quotations from a test of "Attitude toward the Law."¹² Each individual tests himself by checking from a list suitable statements of attitude which represent a wide range of opinions. Among those on this instrument are the following:

1. Individual laws are frequently unjust.
5. Though it is our duty to obey all laws, we can try to have them changed.
7. The law is for the poor to obey, and for the rich to ignore.
11. Since law is made by man, it may be either good or bad.
13. The law is superior to individual codes of conduct.
19. The law is rotten to the core.
20. The less one tampers with the law, the better.

It is obvious that the comparison of opinions, on a group of such questions, might be a stimulus to thoughtful discussion.

Instruments to discover the interest (vocational interests blanks, reading interest analyses, recreational interest blank, and the like), and activity analysis blanks (daily or weekly re-

¹¹ See also the "Study of the Personal Qualifications Which Make for Success in Commercial Vocations" in chap. iii.

¹² Scale No. 27, Form B, from a series of instruments for "The Measurement of Social Attitudes," edited by L. L. Thurstone. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

ports of activities engaged in), lend themselves to use as suggested above. After each individual has analyzed his own interests or kept a record of his activities for a period of time, he is interested in discussing the significance of the same, in comparing his interests and activities with those of others, and in working out a better program for himself.

Some instruments are particularly suited for use as the basis for discussion. Of this nature are some of the sections in Strong's, *Vocational Interest Blank*.¹³ One section asks the student to select the three most important factors affecting his work, and the three least important factors, from the following list:

Salary received for work.

Steadiness and permanence of work.

Opportunity for promotion.

Courteous treatment from superiors.

Opportunity to make use of all one's knowledge and experience.

Opportunity to ask questions and to consult about difficulties.

Opportunity to understand just how one's superior expects work to be done.

Certainty one's work will be judged by fair standards.

Freedom in working out one's own methods of doing work.

Co-workers—congenial, competent, and adequate in number.

Other sections in this same instrument give opportunity for the analysis of interest in various vocations, amusements, school subjects, types of activities, types of people, etc. Each of these might be the stimulus for group discussion.

Those who are interested in this technique should consult lists of available measurement forms. So many tests and other instruments are available that any brief list will of necessity be very incomplete. For the sake of the teacher who may not be familiar with the testing field but who wishes to use such instruments as a stimulus for discussion, the names of a few suitable instruments are given.

¹³ Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1927.

Suggestions for elementary classes:

TESTS OF ATTITUDES AND KNOWLEDGE

1. *Good Citizenship Test*—C.E.I. Group.
Range: Grades 4-8.
New York: Association Press, 1930.
2. *Information Test, Forms 1 and 2*—C.E.I. Group.
Range: Grades 4-8.
New York: Association Press, 1930.
3. *Opinion Ballots, A and B* (two forms of each)—C.E.I. Group.
Range: Grades 4-8.
New York: Association Press, 1930.
4. *Baker: Tell What I Do*. Author: Harry J. Baker.
Range: Grades 4-6.
Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1930.
5. *The Best Thing To Do, Test of Knowledge of Social Standards, Forms A and B*. Author: Frank E. Tomlin.
Range: Grades 4-8.
Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1931.
6. *Detroit Cardinal Objectives Examination, Form A*, Parts 1 and 2.
Range: Grades 3-12.
Detroit: Detroit Public Schools, Department of Research, 1929.

INTEREST AND ACTIVITY ANALYSES

7. *Lehman's Play Quiz*. Authors: Harvey C. Lehman and Paul A. Witty.
Range: 8-22 years.
New York: Association Press, 1927.

Suggestions for secondary classes:

TESTS OF ATTITUDES AND KNOWLEDGE

1. *Allport and Vernon: A Study of Values*. Authors: G. W. Allport and P. E. Vernon.
Range: Senior high school and above.
Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931.

2. *Moss Social Intelligence Test*. Author: F. A. Moss, T. Hunt, and K. T. Omwake.
Range: High school and older.
Washington, D.C.: Center for Psychological Service. Form 1, 1925; Form 2, 1927; Form 3, 1930.
3. *University of Chicago Attitude Scales*.—Editor: L. L. Thurstone.
Range: High school and older.
A series in process of development which will include measures of opinion on a wide range of social, religious, economic, and political problems.
Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
4. *Opinions on International Questions*. Compiled from tests of George B. Neumann, Eliot Porter, H. W. Hollinger, R. Fredrick, and S. M. Keeney.
Range: Junior high school and older.
New York: Association Press, 1928.
5. *Test of International Attitudes*. Author: George B. Neumann, D. H. Kulp II, and Helen Davidson.
Range: Senior high school.
New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926.
6. *Hill Test in Civic Attitudes*. Author: H. C. Hill.
Range: Grades 6-12.
Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1926.
7. *Hill-Wilson Civic Action Test*. Authors: H. C. Hill and H. E. Wilson.
Range: Grades 6-12.
Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1928.
8. *Personal Attitudes Test for Younger Boys*. Author: Lennig Sweet.
Range: Junior and senior high school.
New York: Association Press, 1929.
9. *Baker: Tell What I Do (Advanced Form)*. Author: Harry J. Baker.
Range: Grades 7-9.
Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1930.

10. *Detroit Cardinal Objectives Examination, Form A*, Parts 1 and 2.
Range: Grades 3-12.
Detroit: Detroit Public Schools, Department of Research,
1929.

INTEREST AND ACTIVITY ANALYSES

11. *Lehman's Play Quiz*. Authors: Harvey C. Lehman and Paul A. Witty.
Range: 8-22 years.
New York: Association Press, 1927.
12. *Strong Vocational Interest Blank*. Author: Edward K. Strong, Jr.
Range: High school and older.
Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1927.
Form B, 1930.
13. *Miner, Analysis of Work Interest Blank*. Author: J. B. Miner.
Range: High school and older.
Chicago: C. H. Stoelting Co, 1918.
14. *Vocational Guidance Score Blanks for Junior High Schools*.
Author: J. M. Brewer.
Range: Junior and senior high school.
Chicago: C. H. Stoelting Co., 1923.
15. *My Vocational Guidebook*. Authors: R. H. Rogers and H. S. Belman.
Range: High school and older.
Milwaukee, Wis.: Bruce Publishing Co., 1930.
16. *Shall I Go to College?* Author: Lonzo Jones.
Range: High school.
Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1930.

A Group That Built Its Own Self-rating Scale

The following unit was used in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades in Pontiac. Each class was asked to suppose that it had been appointed as a committee to select the ten best workmen in the school. It was first necessary to prepare a list of characteristics which would be considered in making the selec-

tion. Each characteristic was discussed carefully and concrete illustrations presented in order that the entire class would understand just what was meant. These lists were worded in a variety of ways but covered such general items as:

- a) Accuracy, neatness, thoroughness in the preparation of individual work.
- b) Enthusiastic, thoughtful participation in class activities.
- c) Ability to work co-operatively with other pupils.
- d) Ability to use time economically without unnecessary waste of time.
- e) Reliability and ability to work without supervision.
- f) Working to learn the most rather than to "get by," honesty in work, etc.

After the list of characteristics was completed each pupil was asked to use the list as the basis for self-rating. The items in the list were copied on the blackboard and each one numbered. Each boy and girl was given a piece of ruled paper. The lines were numbered to correspond with the items in the list, thus making it unnecessary to duplicate the list on each piece of paper. Each pupil thought of each characteristic as related to himself and then gave himself a rating of "Good," "Poor" or "Average."

When such plans are used every effort should be made to make the work of the pupil confidential. The teacher is not interested in the answers on the report but in helping the child to engage in thoughtful self-criticism. It is often well to urge the children to keep their answers covered with a piece of paper, to tell them not to sign their names, or at least to assure them that no other pupil will find out what they write on their paper. Such precautions encourage frank consideration and self-analysis.

At this point a comment should be made about the rather common practice of having children report to the class various items of information about their own conduct. There was a

teacher who put up a chart and asked each of her pupils to put a check mark after his name for each day that he went all day with clean hands. After three days the chart got so dirty that she had to take it down. The Character Education Inquiry studied a program of character education which requires each pupil to keep a daily record of certain good deeds. Promotion was granted to the pupil upon the basis of the number of accomplishments he reported for himself. Tests indicated that the pupils who participated in this program were much more deceptive or untruthful than their fellow-students who did not participate.¹⁴ It is obvious that such a plan provides a very strong incentive for dishonesty and cannot but have risk for those who participate. The rating scale may become a dangerous form of artificial stimulus. It is for this reason that it can best be used as a means of securing self-analysis and not as a means of giving recognition to the superior or inferior students.¹⁵

A Study of the Standards of Boy-Girl Friendships

It is usually helpful for a thinking student to discover both sides of a controversial subject. The following is the report of a rather mechanical method by which a group of students discovered the various attitudes held with regard to the standards between boys and girls. Mention has already been made of a dissertation entitled *A Study of the Recreational Life of High School Students*.¹⁶ This thesis reports a co-operative study of various phases of the recreational life of a group of 120 high-school students. This study is called "co-operative" because the group of students co-operated in the planning and

¹⁴ Hugh Hartshorne and Mark A. May, *Studies in Deceit*, "Studies in the Nature of Character," Book I (New York: Macmillan Co., 1928), pp. 339-55.

¹⁵ For further discussion see pp. 267-68.

¹⁶ K. L. Heaton, *op. cit.*

execution of each step in the investigation. Through their committees they helped to formulate each questionnaire or other instruments that was used. Each individual used these instruments to study his own leisure-time experience. After the study of motion pictures was completed, the group received a tabulated report of the findings. After the investigation of school clubs, fraternities, dances, summer recreations, and each additional part of the project, the results were made available to all who were participants in it.

One week during the study was devoted to the matter of boy-girl friendships. The students helped prepare two lists of questions—one which would guide the boys in reporting their opinions and suggestions regarding the girls in the school, and another which would guide the girls in making a similar report about the boys. These lists included such questions as the following which are taken from among those to be answered by boys about their girl-friends:

1. What do you admire in a girl you like for a friend?
2. What are the worst faults in the girls you know?
3. What would you like to tell your girl friends if you felt free to do so: (a) About their general spirit and attitude? (b) About their interests? (c) About the way they dress? (d) About their personal habits? (e) About the "dates" you have together?

When the questions were completed each of the students prepared a rather lengthy statement of his opinion on each question. The statements were collected and tabulated in such a way that the various shades of opinion could be reported back to the students. The study was made with the sole purpose of securing a picture of the activities and attitudes of the group, and without any intention of influencing their attitudes or conduct. The results were very surprising. In the first place, the students were insistent in their request, particularly those who had departed widely from the conventional modes of conduct, that they be given

some guidance in setting up the right standards. As one student said, "This report tells us the *different* ways we think. Can't you tell us what we ought to think?" The setting was prepared for a period of further study and investigation. There were also some very definite changes in conduct which could be observed in the classroom. The boys, for example, commented upon the carelessness of girls in forgetting to pull down their skirts when sitting. It was the time of short skirts and this was an easy thing for girls to forget. The mere mention of this criticism, among hundreds of others, brought about an almost miraculous change. The girls, in return, had expressed a feeling that many boys were careless about their appearance. Boys who had never worn ties or white shirts to school put them on. Shoes were shined and suits pressed more regularly.

The effectiveness of this project in modifying behavior in the group would seem to be due to the influence of group opinion. As one of the students remarked, some weeks after the report was made, "It has enabled me to try and cover my weak points. It is only natural that the girls should try to please the boys." The force of group opinion was evidently greater because of the co-operative basis of the entire research project. The students felt an unusual degree of interest in the findings because the project was their own, and they were assured of the validity of the opinions reported. The fact that they knew the project was planned to secure facts, and not to influence their conduct, may also have added to the importance they attached to the findings. It was necessary in directing the research to be very careful not to influence the attitude of the students because that would have conflicted with the purpose of the research, which was to secure a fair picture of the recreational life of the group. The unbiased manner seemed to add significance to the findings. The students had studied for themselves the attitude of the group, they had

made certain findings, and desired to modify their own behavior accordingly.

Exploring the Contents of a Typical Newspaper

In one of a series of booklets which contain suggestions for projects for young people of high-school age, E. L. Shaver suggests a study of the newspaper and its influence upon public opinion.¹⁷ The preliminary step is to take several editions of typical newspapers and to classify the type of materials it contains. The following suggestions are made for this exploration:

By clipping or marking in some way the amount of space given to various kinds of news can be ascertained, as important events (political, national, and international), crime, human interest, sporting, social, accidents, and the like. More important than this, however, is an examination with the purpose of discovering whether the news is sensational in nature, whether the headlines accurately represent the actual news description, whether some kinds of news are featured to the exclusion of others, whether there is evidence of prejudice, or bias and the cause, and whether the paper on the whole is helpful and constructive. Such questions as the following may start the Committee thinking:

1. Is the news of the day printed and the several kinds given their reasonable share of space?
2. Could any of it have been written more helpfully?
3. Should any of it have been abbreviated or left out entirely?
4. How much of it is material which does not harmonize with the editor's or owner's views?
5. Are any important articles located in inconspicuous places? Why?
6. Does this paper have a motto? How does it compare with that you have seen in other papers? Is it lived up to?

¹⁷ E. L. Shaver, *A Christian's Attitude toward the Press* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925), 45 pages. One of a series of "Young People's Projects" planned for church groups but containing many valuable suggestions for public school teachers.

7. Do you know whether this paper has refused to publish any news? Was it justified in so doing?
8. What is the best and most helpful article in the paper? The least helpful?
9. Does this paper publish what the people want to read? Should it adopt this policy?
10. Does the question of ownership have anything to do with the character of the paper?¹⁸

This illustrates a type of exploration which may open up wide ranges of social experience and arouse interest in problems with which the student may not be in the least familiar. In the booklet prepared by Shaver, plans and materials are provided for groups who may desire to follow this exploratory process with a careful consideration of the problems which it brings to their attention.

The value of such a unit is not entirely in the immediate experience that it gives to the student. There is a more permanent value. The boy or girl learns to see problems. He is given practice in the process of discovering social issues and sore spots. He learns to be of a critical mind, rather than to accept everything as it is without thought that it might be better. Social progress and progress in personal living is dependent upon a measure of dissatisfaction with things as they are. Boys and girls should be given experience in the discovery of problems, in the discovery of the mistakes and the inadequacies of life as it is.¹⁹

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 12-13.

¹⁹ Samples of the application of the research technique to the fields of vocational preparation will be found in chapter iii under the headings: "A Study of the Personal Qualifications Which Make for Success in Commercial Vocations" and "A Unit To Interest High-School Students in the Personal Qualities Essential in Industrial Pursuits." Chapter ii contains other samples of the research method under the headings: "A Plan for the Reading of Biography in High-School English Courses," "English Composition Topics To Aid in Vocational Adjustment," items 16 and 19; and chapter iii contains an example under the title: "An Arithmetic Class Studies Investments."

CHAPTER XI

UNITS WHICH INVOLVE PRACTICE IN DESIRABLE FORMS OF CONDUCT

From the research of the Character Education Inquiry has come a principle and suggested method of teaching which may have great significance for future methodology in the field. Service projects, projects which give opportunity for participation in the activities of a miniature society, and other enterprises which thrust pupils into the midst of the successes and failures of daily life are not new. It is the suggestion of Harts-horne and May that these experiences of opportunity and temptation must be graded so that the child will progress from step to step in his ability to make the most of his opportunities and to meet his temptations.

THE PRINCIPLE OF GRADUATED OPPORTUNITY AND GRADUATED TEMPTATION

These principles have been referred to as the corollaries of "graduated opportunity" and of "graduated temptation."

The first implies that situations faced by children shall become more and more complex and make constantly heavier demands upon their power of adjustment. If situations change too rapidly, the pupil is confused and resorts to some inadequate system of behavior already learned. If the situations do not change fast enough, they offer no challenge to thought or the intelligent reconstruction of past experience to meet new demands in the light of what has already been learned. So the educator will have available a series of graded opportunities.

In a similar way the second corollary implies that situations which prompt to action already found inappropriate or destructive (and which are unlike those previously experienced) shall be *grad-*

ually introduced in order that resistance to novel appeals may be built up through increasing ability properly to classify each new situation. So the educator will have available a series of graded temptations.¹

These principles suggest that, as the pupil achieves in one situation or withstands temptation in one opportunity for wrongdoing, he gains skill in meeting situations as well as satisfaction and confidence which fits him to meet more difficult situations. The child must be placed in situations to which he is equal, but these situations must increase in their demands from step to step. A selfish child may be asked to give something he doesn't care for to a very good friend of his. From this beginning he can be asked to give other gifts which are gradually increased in their value to himself, or the demands can be increased by gradually increasing the distance between the child and the one who is to be the recipient of the gift. Thus, his field of giving will widen until he gains satisfaction from giving objects of real value to those who are far away from his field of sympathetic interest at the beginning of the process. Similarly, a student may waste time and disturb the entire class if a teacher who has practiced very rigid supervision of her pupils suddenly gives him a large measure of freedom. If this freedom is given to him gradually as he is able to use it, the same pupil may be able to master the situation and its temptations from step to step. Temptations presented gradually as the child is able to meet them have been likened² to the toxin-antitoxin which immunizes against diphtheria. Experience in meeting lesser temptations gives a capacity for control that prepares for greater temptations.

¹ Hugh Hartshorne, Mark A. May, and Frank K. Shuttleworth, *Studies in the Organization of Character* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1930), p. 378. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

² Hugh Hartshorne, "A Few Principles of Character Education," *Religious Education*, XXIV (November, 1929), 813-15.

This implies that in the selection of activities for his class the teacher must start with his group on the level of development already attained. Character is the result of a growth process, and success upon one level prepares the way for a higher level. In planning group activities the teacher must consider the degree of progress of the members of the group. In some manner he must discover the ability of the members of the group to meet temptations or to profit from opportunities. This suggests the need of some means of discovering the level of development of children—some formal or informal test to familiarize the teacher with the probable reaction of his pupils when certain demands are made.

It would seem that this plan would have its chief usefulness in relationship to the individual pupil that may need guidance. It is possible to give him graduated opportunities and graduated temptations. A high-school boy came into a child-guidance clinic because of reckless driving of his car, lack of parental control, and other forms of difficulty. The boy spent the most of his hours outside of school time in his car driving at reckless speeds. It was the one thing he did which gave him a sense of security. When in his car he was master of his fate and the speed of the car was the expression of his power. The parents wanted the psychologist to make the boy give up the car at once. Obviously it was dangerous for him to drive so fast, and the cost of upkeep on the car was far greater than the family could afford. To take the car away would immediately leave the boy with two to four hours a day of idle time for which he was not prepared. The use of the car was not denied the boy, but he was gradually assisted in the discovery of other things to do, and the problems in his life which had given him need for the car as a support to his ego began to be settled. Thus the boy was prepared step by step to use the time in better ways and to have less need for the car.

In this principle it is implied that it would be possible to

build up a graduated list of opportunities and temptations which might be used by the teacher in individual and group guidance. At the present time no such list is available. In view of the complicated factors which condition the reaction of the individual in a particular situation, it is probable that the preparation and the application of such a schedule would not be very simple. There are teachers, however, who are particularly skilful in planning for their own classes upon the level of pupil development. It would seem that this skill is due, in part, to a knowledge of the types of demands which can be made of boys and girls at any particular developmental level. In part, it is due to the fact that the skilful teacher is in close enough contact with the life of his pupils that he knows their points of strength and their points of weakness. When a service enterprise, for example, is being planned, the plan is developed co-operatively with an opportunity for individual pupils to express their feelings toward the proposed group activity. With such a method for keeping in touch with pupils and with the principle of graduated opportunities and temptations in mind, the teacher may be able, to some extent at least, to grade his own activities.

The illustrations contained in later paragraphs are not graded experiences but are samples of the type of activities which will give to pupils opportunities to practice desirable forms of conduct and to meet the responsibilities and temptations of group living.

PURPOSIVE ACTION ESSENTIAL TO EFFECTIVE ACTION

Before turning to suggested forms of activity which provide to the boy or girl practice in desirable forms of conduct, another factor should be given consideration. The participation in desirable forms of conduct may not necessarily be effective in character formation. The pupil may only be trying to please the teacher by co-operation in enterprises which the teacher

suggests. He may only be learning to tolerate people of other lands, or to patronize the less fortunate, or to build up his own self-pride by adding to the number of school activities in which he has participated.

We are interested that boys and girls learn to think beyond immediate interests and to take a long-time view of life. We are interested that they learn to look beyond their own interest and to consider the interests of others. Such activities as are considered in this chapter should be an expression of this broad view of life. They should be engaged in because, after careful consideration of the interests of others and of one's self, of future and immediate needs, the pupil has himself decided that they are desirable forms of conduct. They become, when they are the result of such a train of thought, the expression of the child's desire to engage in activities that promote the greatest good, for the greatest length of time, for the greatest number of people. The number of activities in which a child engages is unimportant unless he feels this interest in all of life and in the interests of others, and is motivated by this broad view to engage in the activities.

SAMPLE UNITS WHICH INVOLVE PRACTICE IN DESIR- ABLE FORMS OF CONDUCT

*A "Housekeeping" Project in a First Grade Group*³

At the beginning of their first grade, a class of children decided to follow the teacher's suggestion and organize their room as a co-operative "family." The particular aim in the project was to be the care of the classroom. The class decided to assign definite tasks to each pupil. A careful check was made to see that all tasks were performed. Leaders were selected to have charge of such special fields as the care of books, care of other supplies, cleanliness of the floors, desk inspection, at-

³ Reported in *A Program of Character Education* (First Grade), Pontiac (Michigan) Public Schools, 1930.

tractiveness of the bulletin board, blackboard care, and drinking fountain inspection. Serving with each boy or girl chosen as a leader was a committee of pupils. Each child was given a task to perform and there was frequent rotation in the type of work assigned to each. The teacher was particularly careful to avoid any appearance of favoritism. Responsibilities were shifted so that each had his share of work to perform.

Out of the care of the room there grew certain standards which were accepted by the class. They were as follows:

- A. Paper, pencils, paste, crayons, clay, scissors, etc.
 1. Work carefully with all materials.
 2. Use "only enough."
 3. Save paper not used one day for some other day.
- B. Desks or tables.
 1. Help keep them clean and free from marks.
 2. Watch scrap papers.
 3. Keep chewing gum off all furniture.
 4. Books in neat pile at night.
 5. Save janitor's time whenever possible.
- C. Use of towels.
 1. Tear off only the necessary amount.
 2. Place in waste basket.
- D. Use of water.
 1. Always turn off the water.
 2. Do not spill on the floor.
- E. Use of lights.
 1. Lights off on a bright day.
 2. Regulation of window blinds.
- F. Books.
 1. Turn pages by upper right-hand corner.
 2. Never wet fingers when turning pages.
 3. Never bend the back of a book, but hold it carefully.
 4. Close book before laying it down.
 5. Be sure that hands are clean before using books.
 6. Never mark in the book.

7. Feel responsible for mending torn books.
8. Always treat books as you would treat other friends.

G. Bulletin Board.

1. Neatly arranged.
2. Well-selected materials.
3. Seasonal decorations.

H. Blackboard.

1. Kept clean except for necessary materials.
2. Erasers dusted daily.
3. Chalk always available.

The children had to learn to notice signs of carelessness and disorder. The teacher brought these matters to their attention in conversation periods which were known as "family chats." Sometimes the evidences of disorder were brought up directly by the teacher while at other times other methods were used. If, for example, she found that some of the pupils were not putting their books in their table drawers in an orderly way, she might suggest that this was a matter which she thought needed more careful attention by the inspectors. At other times she might approach such a problem with a story which would call the matter to the attention of the boys and girls. She might have the boys and girls parade in a line up and down the aisles and then let them choose the most neatly arranged desks and discuss the characteristics of a neatly arranged desk. She found it valuable after discussing the care of school property to have periods in which the children practiced the care of pencils and paste, care in turning off water fountains, etc.

Other types of problems arose, some only related indirectly to the care of the room. Feelings of unfriendliness between pupils, misunderstandings as to the functions of various leaders, failures of committees to co-operate, new pupils entering the room that had to be initiated to the responsibilities of membership in the group, etc. None of these problems may be

considered as crucial except, perhaps, at the time of occurrence, but they provide a very significant teaching opportunity. As the boys and girls try to meet the daily problems of the group, they gain experience in meeting situations. There are techniques of problem-solving and of social adjustments with which six-year-olds can become familiar and which they can learn to put into practice.

Peters, in his volume *Objectives and Procedures in Civic Education*,⁴ suggests that "monitorial" duties such as those included in the first of this project are not necessarily done in the spirit of service, but are done by the pupil because they give to him individual recognition. This suggests that care should be taken to emphasize the project as a *group* project with recognition to the group rather than to individuals. Peters feels that such tasks "afford a basis in experience that can give meaning to adult ideals of social service"⁵ but the association may not be made without the use of group discussion or some other way of bringing the points of likeness to the attention of children. If the principle of "graduated opportunity"⁶ is applied and if these duties are considered as stepping-stones to larger service demands, they will have their maximum of value.

Playing "Families" in a First-Grade Room

A very elaborate project described in Margaret E. Wells' volume, *A Project Curriculum*,⁷ centered about the life of the home and included several forms of activity with character value. The children discussed the duties of the different members of the family. A "Fathers' Club," "Mothers' Club," and

⁴ C. C. Peters, *Objectives and Procedures in Civic Education* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1930), pp. 118-20.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 119.

⁶ See pp. 187-89.

⁷ Margaret E. Wells, *A Project Curriculum* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lipincott Co., 1921), pp. 20-71.

a club for the children in the families were formed. Each of these groups met from time to time to discuss the duties which the members of each should assume in the home, to plan inter-family activities, and to discuss problems which arose as the children tried to dramatize the life and activities of family groups. The result was a closer bond of sympathy between the child and his parents, because of the increased understanding of the complexities and problems of home life. The child in such an activity lives the rôle of others and familiarizes himself with the problems and the experiences of parents, friends, neighbors, etc.

Service Activities as Character Education Units

All service activities may be called units in character education. Whenever special time is set aside to prepare Thanksgiving baskets, to make scrapbooks for a children's hospital, or to make Christmas presents for mother, the chief interest of the teacher is usually to give children experience in working together as a class or as a homeroom for the benefit of others.

The following list of possible activities was prepared upon the basis of activities actually reported by the various public schools in Jersey City. The majority are of a service nature. Many of these will not be found suitable for use in any one school, but some will be recognized as appropriate for almost any class.

1. An anti-litter campaign: (a) on school grounds; (b) in district or home street.
2. Clean-up week. . . .
3. Secure vacant spaces for gardening purposes. . . .
4. A campaign against the tussock moth, gypsy moth, or common tent-caterpillar.
5. The making of an out-door running track, tennis court, or hand-ball court.
6. Arbor Day exercises. A bit of landscape gardening applied to (a) the school-yard; (b) the home.

7. Building of bird boxes and baths.
8. Building of cement walks around the school-yard.
9. A campaign against bill-boards.
10. A campaign for clean speech.
11. A campaign against the cigarette.
12. A Safety-First campaign.
13. A drive for better personal hygiene. . . .
14. A campaign against the abuse of school property.
15. A petition to the proper authorities to close a street for recreation purposes.
16. The building of a skating-rink.
17. The building of an extension for the boys' work-shop.
18. The control of line in filing.
19. Taking charge of (a) lunchroom; (b) study rooms.
20. A campaign against tardiness.
21. A thrift campaign; plan individual budgets.
22. The writing of cheerful, helpful notes to fellow-pupils who are ill; a visiting committee.
23. The planning and management of class entertainments.
24. The collection of second-hand clothes, books, or toys for proper distribution to nurseries, hospitals, and worthy homes.
25. The preparation of baskets for Thanksgiving dinners to the needy of the neighborhood.
26. A community Christmas-tree.
27. Entertaining children at a hospital.
28. A chapter in the Junior Red Cross.
29. The dressing of dolls for poor children.
30. Join the Red Star League (against cruelty to animals).
31. Acting as guides or Junior police whenever or wherever a large crowd is to be handled.
32. Exhibits of the products of (a) school gardens; (b) sewing circles; (c) shop articles; (d) canning clubs, etc.
33. The cleaning up of some spot of civic or historic interest, and the erection of an appropriate tablet or marker.
34. A campaign to fight the white plague; purchase Christmas seals.

35. Campaign against fire: (a) fire drill; (b) inspection of school; (c) the building fires; (d) how to ring in an alarm; (e) playing with matches; (f) leaving things on fire escapes.
36. Campaign against unnecessary noise in the street.
37. The formation of a school bank.
38. A campaign for a "Safe and Sane" Fourth of July.
39. Campaign for the proper observation of all patriotic or civic holidays, in school and out.
40. Organization and election of officers for (a) Junior League; (b) Student's Council; (c) Debating Society.
41. Prepare a heavy cardboard map of town or city.
42. The beautifying of a little park in the town or city.
43. The making of a guide book of the vicinity.
44. Fixing up the "old swimming-hole" or a baseball diamond.
45. Appropriate celebration of Constitution Day.
46. Activities of the American Junior Red Cross.
47. A "swat the fly" or mosquito campaign.
48. Beautifying and adorning the school building. . . .
49. Campaign against unsportsmanlike conduct at games.
50. Appoint committees to inspect (a) grocery stores; (b) butcher stores; (c) ice cream parlors, etc.⁸

World-Friendship Projects

Various elementary-school classes and homerooms in junior high school have co-operated with the Junior Red Cross⁹ and the Committee on World Friendship among Children¹⁰ in exchanging gifts of friendship with the children of other lands. Either of these organizations is always ready to suggest plans for world-friendship projects. Two periodicals of the American National Red Cross, *Junior Red Cross Journal* and *Junior Red Cross News*, contain the reports of projects in schools throughout the country.

⁸ R. W. Hatch, *Training in Citizenship* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926), pp. 79-81.

⁹ All materials secured from the American National Red Cross, 17 and D Streets, Washington, D.C.

¹⁰ Address: 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

Pupil Co-operation in Meeting School Emergencies

Emergencies and even the inconveniencies of school life sometimes provide the stimulus and the setting for enterprises which build loyalty to the school and a fine spirit of co-operation and service. A publication of the Oakland (California) public schools tells of a group of children who had to be housed for a year in a very dilapidated portable school. Grass and flowers were planted, flower boxes and vases were made and kept filled with flowers, one of the boys painted some of the furniture, a curtain was made to stop the draught, and many other improvements made through the combined efforts of pupils, teacher, and janitor.¹¹

It is an interesting aspect of the "Five-Year Plan" in Russia that the youth of the country are being rallied around the program as their own great "cause" or opportunity. They are made to feel that in large measure the future of the country depends upon them and upon concrete service which they render to the state. *New Russia's Primer*, first written as a textbook for Russian children, ages twelve to fourteen, gives a definite list of projects in which the young "pioneers" can engage. This list suggests activities that are not to be thought of as merely interesting projects, but as crucial needs of the country which are of such great importance that they demand loyal service and even sacrificial service on the part of boys and girls. The call to service to the country partakes of the spirit of religious consecration.

1. Discover deposits of lime and phosphorus.
2. Gather junk which will be of value in factories.
3. Build radios so that every community can have such contact with the outside world.
4. Sort grain raised on farms and treat it with insecticide.
5. Gather ashes for fertilizer.

¹¹ Oakland Public Schools, *Building Character through Activities in the Elementary Schools* (Oakland, Calif.: Oakland Public Schools), p. 74.

6. Fight parasites and destructive animals.
7. Build bird houses and feeding stations.
8. Start poultry farms.
9. Encourage each household to keep chickens.
10. Plant trees.
11. Destroy flies, bedbugs, etc.
12. Teach illiterate to write and read.¹²

A recent article tells of the burning of the Hessian Hills School, a private school for children, and how the school was able to "capitalize a catastrophe." Ruth Edgerton, speaking of the happiness of the children in the school before the fire, says:

But a feeling had been growing up in us that they took everything it offered a little too much for granted—the shop with its carefully arranged tools, the iron, copper, and brass they worked with so freely, the looms and wool in the pleasant attic room, the paints and oils in the little studio, the clay and the kiln which baked their products. They more and more tended, we felt, to accept all this as something provided of necessity for their use and enjoyment.¹³

When all of the elaborate equipment was destroyed, the group of eight- and nine-year-old children suddenly found itself in cramped quarters and without even pencils and paper to work with. There was a fund of nine dollars which the children had earned which was promptly offered to buy equipment, and the group undertook the task of outfitting the temporary school. They soon found that the equipment to which they were accustomed was very expensive but that there were cheaper substitutes, that they could make their own paste, and that stubby pencils were usable. But, as time went on, the children felt the need for more money and launched a project which involved the making and selling of cookies as well as certain

¹² M. Ilin, *New Russia's Primer* (trans. by George S. Counts and Nucia P. Lodge, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931), pp. 159-62.

¹³ *Progressive Education*, IX (March, 1932), 237-38.

other outside enterprises not sponsored by the school as a whole. Miss Edgerton says:

The whole experience has been of immense educational value. It has supplemented but not replaced the academic curriculum. It has given them strongly motivated arithmetic problems, much practical information and business experience. It has called for persistence and ingenuity, self-control and co-operation in a difficult but not impossible self-imposed task. It has been even more significant in revealing the deep loyalty of the children to their school and in developing a sustained and active sense of responsibility. They have identified themselves with a cause.¹⁴

There is not a school that does not have emergencies and unfulfilled needs. The skilful teacher will find in these occasions various opportunities to help pupils "identify themselves with a cause."¹⁵

¹⁴ *Ibid.*; p. 240.

¹⁵ Additional illustrations of units which involve practice in desirable forms of conduct will be found in chapter ii under the heading, "A Co-operative Project of High-School Civics Classes and City Officials," and in chapter xv under the headings, "Clubs" and "All-School Projects Which Give Practice in Desirable Forms of Conduct."

CHAPTER XII

DRAMATIZATION AS A METHOD OF TEACHING

A consideration of drama in its relation to character must needs include two aspects—formal drama and “creative” or “educational” dramatics. The study and production of plays and pageants has long had a place in the program of the school. Creative dramatics is a newer technique, but one which is perhaps of greater significance in relation to the subject treated in this volume. The newer method has been described as:

. . . . Dramatic expression which comes from within, rather than the imitative expression which so often characterizes the rehearsing of plays for public exhibition. Instead of memorizing set speeches and acting parts in the way the teacher directs, the children develop plays out of their own thoughts and imaginations and emotions.¹

The point of emphasis has been shifted from the finished production which is presented for the amusement or education of the audience to the process of developing the dramatization and the quality of experience which it can give to the pupils who do the creating and producing. A review of some of the values which are claimed for dramatics will suggest that, although some may be advanced by formal dramatics, these values are most likely to be realized when the latter type of emphasis is predominant.²

CHARACTER VALUES OF DRAMATICS

Dramatization as a Broadening of Experience

Dramatization of both the formal and the creative type opens up avenues of experience to children and young people

¹ Winifred Ward, *Creative Dramatics* (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1930), p. 3.

² The teacher is referred to volumes in the field of dramatics for the detailed techniques of teaching creative dramatics.

which they might never have opportunity to explore in any other way. The actor lives, for the time, the character which he represents. He has practice in living the type of life of the character. He shares the struggles, the successes, and the failures of the character. He receives satisfaction from conduct which meets public approval and the disapproval perhaps of conduct which is not socially desirable.

In dramatic expression the child tries on a new character. He is transplanted in new environment. He gains experience. He acquires many of the necessary qualities and rehearses many of the activities by which he is to make and hold a place in the world's complications. . . . He makes social adaptations to new and created environment. Thus is developed a sympathetic understanding. He is placed in another's place. He gets experience by proxy, so to speak.³

Here is a danger, of course, if the dramatization distorts life and makes that which is socially undesirable seem to be the heroic and virtuous thing. There are trends in modern drama which tend to set up an unreal society and standards of life which are not true to the actual demands and the natural law that govern life. Drama should introduce the child to true life-experience, to a "realism" which is actually a real picture of life. This does not mean that all of the pictures of life should be beautiful ones. If a picture is not of life at its best but represents one of the sore spots or the problems of life, then the pupil should see the picture in its true light as sore spot or problem. If the pupil lives the part of a character whose life is not the best, then it is important that the dramatization identify this character in terms of his behavior and in terms of the standards which should be acceptable in daily life.

³ G. S. Overton, *Drama in Education* (New York: Century Co., 1926), pp. 77-78.

Drama as a Stimulus to Thinking

Drama can also be a stimulus to group and individual thinking. Winifred Ward suggests this possibility at various points in her volume on *Creative Dramatics*.

A large part of the work of the class in creative dramatics consists in analyses of character and plot. Discussions concerning the motives of the characters, concerning the ethics of certain actions, concerning cause and effect are constantly going on, with the result that old, childish attitudes are being laid aside, and new and better attitudes built up in the minds of the pupils. And these new attitudes grow not from the precepts of the teacher but from the perspective gained through living the story and analyzing the character and situation. . . . ⁴

What is acted becomes far more vivid and full of meaning than what is merely read or analyzed. Incidents and phrases which would always have remained hazy in the minds of the class come to light in a dramatization and demand clearing up before the story can be acted. The building of the play demands keen thought and imagination, for it must be orderly, reasonable, convincing, permitting of no slipshod thinking and imagining.⁵

"What about the emotions?" a few leaders began to say. "Isn't the way people feel about things quite as important as the way they think about them? Would it not be well to build right attitudes and appreciations in our children so that they would be better fitted to make the decisions of life? Will they not be more useful citizens if the school leads them to a tolerant understanding of the people with whom they must live?"⁶

A few years ago the writer was among the audience of a New York City theater when it was presenting Channing Pollock's famous drama, *The Fool*. The reader will remember this play because of its criticism of the selfishness and injustice of certain industrial leaders and because of the sharp contrast it draws between the sincere and the insincere among professed Christian people. When the performance was over the writer

⁴ *Op. cit.* p. 28.

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 30-31.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 8.



INFORMAL DRAMATICS

was greatly interested in the discussion of the play which he overheard as the audience crowded toward the door of the theater. Among the comments he overheard this exclamation: "I don't know how they dared to show it!" Since that day many playwrights have dared to present plays which have stimulated people to think about the great issues of social and personal life. Some productions like *The Fool* have introduced the audience to the needs of a certain group in society. Some have pointed out the errors and mistakes of certain types of men—like the capitalists in *The Fool*, the scientists in Bernard Shaw's *Pygmalion*, or the average run of society as in Marc Connelly's *Green Pastures*. Some have presented actual life-situations or problems of choice which have confronted the leading character or characters, and the play has been a working out of the situation to a satisfactory conclusion. A banker is confronted with the choice between a business failure and dishonest practices, or a woman of education faces the problem of working out for her family a life of culture and beauty in spite of the meagerness of the family income. The majority of these dramas seem to be written for adults and as yet there are not many for children and adolescents that stimulate group and individual thinking. There is need for contributions in this field.

Creative dramatics can grow out of a life-situation in such a way that the whole process will follow the general plan of the case-discussion approach.⁷ The situation may be suggested by a story or by the daily experience of the pupils. As the children analyze the problem and work out a solution that is "orderly, reasonable, convincing, permitting of no slipshod thinking and imagining," they should come to a conclusion as to the best way to act in this and similar situations. Sometimes this creative process will be in the nature of the exploratory or research process described in chapter x. They may seek to

⁷ See chap. viii.

understand the life of the alien in America, or the typical farmer, or the unskilled laboring man, or the mother of the average high-school girl, in order to write a play that will be a picture of their life. "Will they not be more useful citizens if the school leads them to a tolerant understanding of the people with whom they must live?"

Drama as a Means of Self-Expression

In one of his early writings John Dewey said:

Drama deals with men in groups, and men in action. It shows action rather than talks about it. It does not paint life but it sets it before us. . . . It shows us man's interior nature working itself out as an objective fact.⁸

If the boy or girl can enter completely into the experience of the drama it can give opportunity for the working out of his own "interior nature." Winifred Ward speaks of the drama as an avenue of emotional expression, particularly during the period of adolescence:

Adolescence is a highly emotional period—a period when the child can scarcely repress his feelings, yet is ashamed to give vent to them. Introspective and oversensitive, he often becomes morbid from living with his own unhealthy thoughts. Creative dramatics gives him a wholesome outlet for his emotions. According to the theory of Aristotle, it serves as a sort of *Katharsis*, or purging of emotion. Without fear of ridicule he can express his feelings in one vivid experience after another. They are vicarious experiences, it is true, but they are real enough to afford him much genuine satisfaction.

An eighth grade girl told one day of what fun she had experienced in working off her high spirits in playing Katharine. "I love to play Katharine," she said, beaming with joy at the recollection of her last dramatic class. "The class thinks I am too shrewish, but I just

⁸ John Dewey, *Psychology* (New York: American Book Co.), p. 321. Copyright. By permission of American Book Company.

forget everything when I am on the stage, and put my whole self into the part."

Emotion is not only given an outlet in creative dramatics but it is refined and guided into legitimate channels. A boy learns control as well as expression, for his work must have balance and a certain amount of restraint, and these things can be gained only by learning to direct and curb them at will. The overbearing boy gratifies his desire for importance by playing King Robert, in *Robert of Sicily*, and as the dramatization progresses, comes to realize the beauty of humility in the man of high degree.⁹

The drama may provide to all ages an opportunity for achievement and the satisfactions that accompany success. It may provide a temporary escape from reality which is less fraught with dangers than day-dreaming, because it is a social experience. It may provide what progressive educators are calling "creative self-expression."

DRAMATIZATION AS IT IS USED

Dramatization of Everyday Problems by Elementary Children

The children in a third-grade room¹⁰ divided up in groups and each group dramatized some common life-situation suggested to it by the sayings of Benjamin Franklin. The following is a sample of one of the dramatizations as it was produced by three boys with scarcely any help from the teacher.

Characters: Two school boys—Jack and Edward.

Teacher

Time: Just before 9:00 o'clock.

Place: Outside school room.

Jack and Edward are talking.

JACK: I went to bed at eleven o'clock last night.

EDWARD: I went at eight.

⁹ Winifred Ward, *op. cit.*, pp. 9-10.

¹⁰ Wisner School in Pontiac, Michigan, with Mrs. Dorothy A. Peterson as teacher.

JACK: You did! ha! Ha! We had lots of fun playing in the yard.

EDWARD: Don't you feel tired today?

JACK: Oh, a little but I'll feel better after awhile.

EDWARD: What time did you get up today?

JACK: I got up just in time before the last bell rang. I was so sleepy my mother had to call me five or six times.

EDWARD: I got up at 7:00 o'clock and went to the store for my neighbor and she gave me a nickel and I am going to save it for bank day. I helped my mother work too.

JACK: Well there's the last bell. Let's go in.

TEACHER: Good morning boys. How many cleaned their teeth this morning? Why didn't you, Jack?

JACK: I didn't have time.

TEACHER: That's too bad. How many had a good breakfast? What did you have, Edward?

EDWARD: Oatmeal, toast, and milk.

TEACHER: What did you eat, Jack?

JACK: I didn't have time. I just grabbed a piece of bread and ran to school and ate it on the way.

TEACHER: I am afraid you will be hungry before noon. Let's get to our lessons. $1 \times 2 = ?$ Edward.

EDWARD: 2.

TEACHER: $2 \times 2 = ?$ Jack.

JACK: I can't think of that.

TEACHER: Tell him Edward.

EDWARD: 4.

TEACHER: $9 \times 2 = ?$ Edward.

EDWARD: 18.

TEACHER: $5 \times 2 = ?$ Jack.

JACK: My head feels queer. I can't think of a thing.

TEACHER: Don't you see, Jack, "early to bed, early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise"?

JACK: I am going to remember that too. Edward got up early and had a good breakfast and he is healthy. I am not. He earned five cents for bank day so he is wealthy and I am not. He knew his arithmetic so he is wise and I am not. I am going to remem-

ber—"Early to bed, early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise."¹¹

Play Writing as Character Education

Fred Eastman¹² in his play-writing courses for students of college age has used a plan which would be applicable to high-school classes. As subjects for the plays that are written, each student selects some interesting human conflict with which he has had personal contact. It may be a matter of personal relationships or one of the major social issues. One student chose the struggle of an oriental student on an American college campus.¹³ Another selected the economic struggles of a dairy farmer.¹⁴ Others took the problem of war.¹⁵ The problems of the rural school teacher, a modern prodigal son, struggles of a colored girl against race prejudice, and miscellaneous others have been selected. In some instances rather elaborate research has preceded the writing of the play, in order that the problem be presented with understanding of the factors involved. In each case the student has had to think through to an understanding of the factors involved in the situation, and to an understanding of desirable solutions. As one of Eastman's students said at the end of the course: "It gave me something original and creative to do; it set me digging into the recesses of human character."¹⁶

¹¹ Other similar dramas will be found in: R. W. Hatch, *Training in Citizenship* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926), pp. 163-91.

¹² Professor of Religious Literature and Drama, Chicago Theological Seminary, Chicago, Illinois.

¹³ Irene T. MacNair, *The Color Line* (New York: Missionary Education Movement).

¹⁴ Margueritte H. Bro, *Milk* (New York: Samuel French, 1929).

¹⁵ *It Shall Not Be Again* (Chicago: Chicago Theological Seminary).

¹⁶ *Drama*, XIX (January, 1929), 115-16.

Plays as a Basis for Group Discussion

Deseo and Phipps in the volume, *Looking at Life through Dramatics*,¹⁷ suggest that drama may be read and studied by adults and young people as an introduction to life-problems.

1. The student may wish to read and study plays simply for the experience of seeing life as it is lived by men and women under all conditions, and in varying situations. Such a study may become a fascinating form of recreation, an escape from the actualities of one's own humdrum existence into more exciting and seemingly more dramatic areas of experience.
2. He may find in the drama helpful suggestions for the solution of his own problems.
3. He may look upon the drama with a very serious motive—that of having light shed for him upon the baffling problems of the day, with which the community, the State, and the world are wrestling.¹⁸

The plan is illustrated with four plays, one presenting the difficulties of the negro race,¹⁹ one representing the economic and moral struggles of a farmer's family,²⁰ a third presenting the problem of international relations,²¹ and a fourth presenting the experience of a young man in prison.²² In each instance it is suggested that the play be read to the group, and that the life-situations presented in the drama be the basis for group discussion. The discussion plan becomes the same as that recommended in a previous chapter for the case-study dis-

¹⁷ Lydia G. Deseo and Hulda M. Phipps, *Looking at Life through Drama* (New York: Abingdon Press, 1931), 203 pages.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

¹⁹ Elizabeth H. Yates, "The Slave" in the collection, *Small Plays for Small Casts* (Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.).

²⁰ Fred Eastman, *Bread* (New York: Samuel French).

²¹ John Drinkwater, *X=O: A Night of the Trojan War* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.).

²² Martin Flavin, *The Criminal Code* (Horace Liveright).

cussion. It is suggested that a series of dramas dealing with related problems may be studied, together with the investigation of other sources of information.

An extensive bibliography of plays and related materials which may be used as the basis for discussion of the following personal and social problems is included in the volume:

1. Race

- A. Appreciation of Other Peoples: Negro, Jew, Mountaineer, American Indian, Oriental, European, Caribbean, General
- B. Problems of Adjustment: Exclusion, Americanization, Religious Concept, Foreign Students in America, the New Orient, the New Negro, the American Indian, the Mountaineer
- C. Sharing with Other People

2. Peace

- A. Attitudes
- B. Facts about War
- C. Peace Measures

3. Industry

- A. Farming
- B. Factory
- C. Mining
- D. Unemployment
- E. Labor

4. Citizenship

- A. Juvenile Delinquency
- B. Patriotism
- C. Prisons
- D. Prohibition

5. City and Rural Life.

- A. City Life: Tenement Life, Unemployment, Apartment Life, Juvenile Delinquency
- B. Rural Life: Struggle for Cultural Advantages, Freedom from Drudgery and Monotony, Neighborliness.

6. Home
 - A. Parent and Child
 - B. Brothers and Sisters
 - C. Husband and Wife
 - D. Other Relationships
7. Belief and Conduct
8. Vocation²³

The bibliography is designed for young people and adults. From it a few illustrations have been selected which will be illustrations of those that can be used as a basis for discussion in high-school groups. The first are selected from those that deal with adjustments within the family group.

Emig, Evelyn, *The China Pig*. In the collection, *A Treasury of Plays for Women*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Reely, Mary, *The Lean Years*. In the collection, *Three One-Act Plays*. Boston: Walter H. Baker Co.

Barry, Philip, *You and I*. New York: Samuel French.

Barry, Philip, *The Youngest*. New York: Samuel French.

Ferber, Edna, *The Eldest*. In the collection, *The American Scene*. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Davis, Owen, *Icebound*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

Brown, Alice, *Joint Owners in Spain*. Boston: Walter H. Baker Co.

Gregory, Lady, *Spreading the News*. New York: Samuel French.

Eastman, Fred, *The Tinker*. New York: Century Co.

Other illustrations are suggested from the list on "Belief and Conduct."

Wilde, Percival, *The Finger of God*. New York: Samuel French.

Wilde, Percival, *The Inn of Discontent*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Hawbridge, Winifred, *The Florist Shop*. Boston: Walter H. Baker Co.

Jasspon and Becker, *The Happy Prince*. In the collection, *Ritual and Dramatized Folkways*. New York: Century Co.

²³ Deseo and Phipps, *op cit.*, pp. 143-88.

A Playlet That Stopped a Playground Annoyance

One of the elementary principals in the Pontiac system became disturbed because the boys spent so much of their time on the playground arguing and scrapping to get favorite positions on ball teams. She discovered that a group of sixth-grade boys were the leaders of the trouble. She hunted up a simple dramatization called "Team Work"²⁴ and took it to the sixth-grade room and asked the boys in that class if they would dramatize this playlet and present it to the school assembly. The play was well acted and much enjoyed by all, and the principal found that "team work" became a by-word on the playground. If the boys had argued and disagreed on the playground because they thought it the thing to do, this method would not have been effective. The principal knew, however, that the boys had fallen into the habits thoughtlessly and that all they needed was a kindly reminder.

Simple Dramatization for Little Children

First-grade teachers in the Pontiac schools have used simple dramatizations to give children practice in courteous speech and action. The children first talk of the common courtesies, then plan ways to dramatize them. Some of these dramatizations have taken the form of conversations between two or more children in which there was opportunity to use the newly learned phrases. In one room the class was divided into two groups. One group dramatized a scene in a classroom in which the children did not pay attention to the teacher when she was reading them a story. The other group presented a school in which the children listened and got to hear all of the story. In another room the children had discussed the courteous way to use the drinking fountain. First the teacher had

²⁴ This dramatization is found in E. F. Hague, Mary Chalmers, and M. A. Kelly, *Studies in Conduct*, Book II (Lincoln, Neb.: University Publishing Co., 1929), pp. 259-68.

them all lined up to drink, then she let them crowd around and all try to get their turn first, and, as a third way, she let them try slipping out of the room one at a time when thirsty. After these three trials, which might be called either dramatizations or experiments, the class discussed the methods as to their relative merit.²⁵

Dramatics and World-Peace

Dr. and Mrs. Lobingier, in the volume, *Educating for Peace*, suggest that the dramatizations of lower elementary grades should include stories and incidents of the following types:

1. Those that give an understanding of the normal life of other peoples. . . .

2. Those that help us to understand how dependent we are upon other peoples. . . . Children may be led to appreciate this fact through the dramatization of stories that suggest our dependence upon others in such matters as food, clothing, toys and household articles.

3. Those that have value from the standpoint of appreciating other peoples.²⁶

In addition to these three, three other types of stories are suggested for the later elementary years:

4. Stories centering about the life and activities of those who may be termed "heroes of peace," whether of our own or of other lands. Heroes of peace may include those who have contributed to human betterment; those who have shown heroic qualities in other fields than that of war; those whose lives have been outstanding examples of the settlement of difficulties by peaceful methods.

5. Stories from the lives of people of other nationalities who are regarded by their own nations as outstanding leaders. Even though their work may not always have been distinctly in the field of world

²⁵ *A Program of Character Education* (First Grade), Pontiac (Michigan) Public Schools, 1930.

²⁶ Elizabeth M. Lobingier and John L. Lobingier, *Educating for Peace* (Boston: Pilgrim Press, 1930), p. 152.

brotherhood there is value in such portrayal, because it brings children into a clearer understanding of another nation's viewpoint.

6. Episodes or incidents that portray international good will or a desire for peace.²⁷

Dramatics for high-school students may include:

1. Plays which deal with more subtle attitudes toward war—its underlying motives, its economic and psychological causes.

2. Plays which reveal the honor and futility of the war method.

3. Plays which reveal a conscious effort to apply Christian principles to international relations and to show the value of using pacific means in the settlement of disputes.²⁸

Illustrations of this type of materials and a bibliography are given by Dr. and Mrs. Lobingier on pages 155-209. They suggest as samples of stories suitable for dramatization by elementary children incidents from the life of the peacemaker William Penn, the story of the "Christ of the Andes" and its origin, and stories of child life in other lands. For young people above the elementary grades stories are recommended such as "The Meeting"²⁹ which tells of an experience in the midst of the recent World War in which French and German soldiers showed friendliness to one another during the lulls in the fighting. Stories of peace-time heroes are also recommended for dramatization by junior and senior high school students.

Among the peace plays and pageants recommended for production are the following which are suitable for children of school age:

1. For upper elementary grades

Dix, Beulah M., *Where War Comes*. Boston: American School Citizenship League, 1916.

Cronk, Katharine S., *America for Americans*. Philadelphia: Women's Missionary Society of the United Lutheran Church.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 153.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 155.

²⁹ By Joseph Folliet, contained in *Peace Crusaders* by Anna B. Griscom, reprinted from *High School Service* of the American Junior Red Cross.

Evans, Anna Cope, *Uncle Sam's Choice*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for Prevention of War.

MacKaye, Hazel, *Good Will the Magician*. New York: National Council for Prevention of War.

Boeckel, Florence B., *The Whole World's Christmas Tree*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for Prevention of War. 1926.

2. For junior high school grades

Boeckel, Florence B., *Times Have Changed*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for Prevention of War, 1929.

Swift, Grace H., *The Robber*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for Prevention of War.

Cronk, Katharine S., *America for Americans*. Philadelphia: Women's Missionary Society of the United Lutheran Church.

Dix, Beulah M., *Where War Comes*. Boston: American School Citizenship League, 1916.

3. For senior high school grades

Keegan, J. Clyde, *Bigger and Better Wars*. Cincinnati: Powell and White, 1927.

Pohl, Frederick J., *Gas*. Brooklyn, N.Y.: Published by author, 359 Halsey St. 1921.

Dix, Beulah M., *A Pageant of Peace*. Boston: American School Citizenship League, 1915.

Ferris, Anita B., *The Triumph of Peace*. New York: Missionary Education Movement, 1915.

Reely, Mary K., *They Just Won't Talk!* Reprinted from the *Virginia Teacher*, January, 1927. Secured from Miss E. Estelle Downey, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

Sherman, Ellen B., *The Soldier's Dream*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for Prevention of War, 1928.

Boeckel, Florence B., *Swords or Plowshares*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for Prevention of War.

Seelig, Clover H., *The Choice*. Author, 4952 Parkview Place, St. Louis.

CHAPTER XIII

STORIES AS THE BASIS FOR CHARACTER EDUCATION

The story and other forms of literature have probably been the most common starting points for character lessons in the past, and the value has undoubtedly been overemphasized. Recent statements regarding the character value of the story suggest that greater attention must be given to the selection and use of stories if they are to contribute in this field.

CHARACTER VALUES OF THE STORY

The Story as a Broadening of Experience

The story, like the drama, can open up new avenues of experience for the boy or girl. The child may live the life of the story just as he may live the life of the play. In his imagination, he may dramatize the experience of the hero or heroine. He may share the struggles, the successes, and failures of the leading character. He may so completely identify himself with this character that he will adopt for his own the ideals and ambitions of the character.

This result is not, however, obtained in all instances. A very common method in the use of stories may preclude the possibility of the child experiencing the story for himself. Stories have been used to illustrate a "lesson" or a "moral" which the teacher wished to give the child. After telling a story the teacher explains to the children how it illustrates the ideal or form of conduct to which attention is being directed. It would seem that to read or hear a story should in itself constitute a learning experience. The *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence says:

Fairy tales, myths, and legends present a childlike criticism of life values. The emotional response of children to these satisfying answers as to why people do what they do helps to build into the children's experience concepts of socially acceptable conduct. The teacher, however, who spoils the literary experience by his incorrect emphasis on any aspect of the story or by consciously moralizing in regard to the "lesson" learned, generates a distaste for literature and for the human experience it presents. Suggestion, as subtle as possible, lets the story—the situation, its hero or heroine—win the child to the main theme of the narrative.¹

Henry Neuman expresses practically the same point of view in a recent article in which he was thinking particularly of the reading materials of high-school students:

Sometimes, therefore, a teacher need say little or nothing to enforce the moral point. First, last, all the time, let the pupils heartily enjoy what they read. Where the first essential in appreciation is achieved, it may often be better for the teacher to refrain from any comment whatever. The children can feel for themselves that Sidney Carton was to be pitied for being a drunkard. Rarely is it necessary, when the author has done his work well, for the teacher to emphasize the villainy of any villain. Children who enjoy *Ivanhoe* will of their own accord resent the injustice with which Isaac and Rebecca were treated and admire all the more the manliness of the Black Prince. In this respect young people are no different from adults who prefer to do their own interpreting and applying. . . .²

These quotations suggest that the pupil will enter into the experience of the story if it is of a nature that he can appreciate and if it is presented in such a way that he develops interest in it. The story selected should be such that the child can imagine himself living the life of the hero in the story. The experiences and the setting must be neither too old nor too young, nor too separated from the past experiences of the

¹ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Tenth Yearbook*, p. 198.

² *English Journal*, XX (December, 1931), 807.

child, that he cannot identify himself with the hero.³ The situations must bear some relationship to the daily life of the child, and the child must enter into them as the dramatization of real situations.

Literally, one must be able to play the rôle of each of the actors, realizing why he behaved as he did. Thus in imagination we stand beside the great ones of history and solve with them again their problems. Surely this is not to have the past imposed on us. It is to live in this expansive experience and to be stirred by the great motives which affected the heroes whom we admire. To be sure, admiration is not morality. We know that it is quite possible to glorify the heroes of the past while failing of even decent conduct in the present. This is, however, partly because the past has not been adequately dramatized. We have not actually felt the play of forces.⁴

Not only must the story be well selected but it must also be well told. The method of telling can limit the value of the best story, because it can rob it of its intrinsic interest.

Interest is the key that unlocks the gate into the realm where educational results are achieved. Being interested in the story, the child follows the characters with eagerness. Interest begets sympathy. Sympathy enables one to share experience with others. In sharing the experiences of the characters, the pupil has a feeling of reality for the truths or principles the story emphasizes. This feeling or reality tends to cause those truths or principles to function in his behavior. Without sympathy on the part of the child toward a story, no benefit will result from his hearing it. Approval, disapproval,

³ It is very important that the one who reads or hears a story shall identify himself with the *hero* in the story. Many selections of literature, as well as plays and motion pictures, are so conceived that the villain rather than the hero stands out as the character which seems to the child or youth as the most worthy of admiration. It isn't so important which character the teacher considers as the hero, but it is important which character the child admires and copies in his imagination and perhaps in actual life.

⁴ T. G. Soares, *Religious Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1928), p. 39.

pity, disdain, and the various emotions must be awakened. There must be response to all the characters in a narrative as one reacts to the individuals in life. The hearer must feel respect or contempt for them if he is to be swayed by their actions. He must desire to emulate or determine to make himself wholly unlike them. The personages in a tale call forth some real response. They must be noble, base, delightful, or repulsive, as the case may be, to the listener.⁵

It is not possible to give a methodology for the story-teller in a few paragraphs, but the reader will experience no difficulty in finding good discussions of the best methods. The following references are among those which have been found helpful among teachers.

Bone, W. A., *Children's Stories and How To Tell Them*. Chicago: Harcourt Brace & Co., 1924. 200 pages.

Bryant, S. C., *How To Tell Stories to Children*. Chicago: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. 260 pages.

Cather, K. D., *Educating by Story Telling*. Chicago: World Book Co., 1918. 442 pages.

Shedlock, M. L., *The Art of the Story-Teller*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929. 287 pages.

The Story as a Stimulus to Thought

The story, again like the drama, may be a stimulus to group and individual thinking. Stories which present the problematic situations in individual experience are like the case studies which were suggested in chapters viii and ix as the starting points for group thinking. The writings of Dickens, Stowe, and many others will always be famous because they stirred people to interest in current social needs. A large portion of the greatest literature of all periods deals in one way or another with the great issues of life, and is designed to

⁵ K. D. Cather, *Religious Education through Story-Telling* (New York: Abingdon Press, 1925), pp. 35-36.

stimulate either reflective thinking or appreciation regarding them.

This suggests, again, that literature must be selected with care if it is to present problems which are of significance in the daily life of the pupil. Much of the literature in our curriculum which is good from the literary standpoint, and interesting, cannot be justified as character-education materials because it presents the personal problems and the social problems of another age and another social scheme. Much that is old still is of value in stimulating thought upon current issues, but there is need for more emphasis upon contemporary writings in our curriculum. Such prose as Cornelia Parker's *An American Idyll*; Silas Bent's *Machine Made Man*; or Abbé E. Dimnet's *The Art of Thinking*; and the poetry of Louis Untermeyer, Vachel Lindsay, Alfred Noyes, John Masefield, and other modern poets, deserve a position among the lists of good literature and they introduce the reader to the problems of present-day life.⁶

ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE USE OF THE STORY

*A Series of Stories about a "Good Citizens" Club*⁷

A volume of stories entitled *The Young Citizen at Work and Play*,⁸ together with an outline of teaching suggestions, was followed in a weekly period of discussion in sixth-grade rooms. This series of stories tells of a group of children who organized a club to promote good citizenship in their school and of the

⁶ The list of books of prose and the list of poets are taken from the recommended list for college entrance requirements in English, of the committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Published in the *North Central Association Quarterly*, V (March, 1931), 553-69.

⁷ Reported in *A Program of Character Education* (Sixth Grade), Pontiac (Michigan) Public Schools, 1930.

⁸ Walter B. Pitkin and Harold F. Hughes, *The Young Citizen at Work and Play* (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929), 209 pages.

various experiences of this club. Out of the experiences of the club there developed certain principles which suggest the scope of the stories in the book:

- a) The good citizen guards against waste of property through fire.
- b) The good citizen helps to keep the streets clean.
- c) The good citizen respects the rights of others.
- d) The good citizen wishes to be healthy and works with those who would keep him so.
- e) The good citizen obeys the laws and should have his rights protected by them.
- f) A good citizen wishes to help those less fortunate than himself.
- g) The good citizen learns to think quickly in emergencies.
- h) The good citizen helps the unfortunate but does it through an organized charity.
- i) The good citizen does his best to make his surroundings beautiful.
- j) The good citizen is interested in his government and wishes to do his part in it.
- k) The good citizen obeys quarantine whether he believes in it or not.
- l) The good citizen tries to be of some service to others.
- m) The good citizen uses, but never abuses, public property.⁹

Following the reading of the first story in the series, the majority of the classes that heard it wished to organize as a club and to have a weekly meeting for discussion of interests suggested by the book. In the weeks that followed, the classes participated in a variety of activities. In the first place, every story raised questions in their minds regarding the situations met by the characters of the story. Sometimes when a character was meeting a problem which required that he choose between two alternative responses, the teacher would stop and let the class decide upon the way the character should choose.

Oftentimes the stories would suggest related problems which the pupils were meeting in actual life. One problem

⁹ Quoted from the various chapters in *The Young Citizen at Work and Play*.

that often was raised was a reflection of a feeling of antagonism toward the police officers. Time was taken in several classes to discuss such questions as the following: What is the value of policemen? What difference would it make if we had none? What service do they render? What would happen if no effort was made to enforce the law?

Other discussions finally led to questions about the general principles of right and wrong conduct. One of the stories in the book is about four boys who made pictures in some fresh plaster which had been placed on the walls of one of the school-rooms. From the discussion of the story there came the following: I think it was just fun for the four boys to decorate the plastering. Yes, but it wasn't fun for the man who had to plaster it again. Can't a fellow have a little fun sometimes? What makes the difference between wholesome fun and unwholesome fun? (Followed by extensive discussion.) How can we tell whether something we do is right or wrong? Should we try to find out who is injured or benefited by what we do? Who was benefited by the act of these four boys? Who was injured by what they did? What standard of right and wrong seems necessary in this situation? etc.

These stories served, also, to stimulate the boys and girls to take a greater interest in community life. Visits to fire and police departments, invitations to a policeman to talk to classes about the work of his colleagues, a study of local provisions for public health and other phases of public welfare, and a survey of common acts of carelessness that may cause accidents—these are just a few of the activities which were suggested by this series of discussions.

*Stories of an Imaginary Children's City*¹⁰

A group of children in the third grade had been studying the pioneer history of their own community. The teacher

¹⁰ Reported in *A Program of Character Education* (Third Grade), Pontiac (Michigan) Public Schools, 1930.

thought that as they talked of the progress which the community had made she would like to direct the attention of the class to the significance of the spirit of the community to its progress. She thought this could be done by spending a period of each week reading and discussing the stories in the volume, *The Knights of Anytown*.¹¹ On the blackboard near the models and map of the local community in pioneer days was drawn a copy of the imaginary "Anytown" as it is given in the book. Molly and Morton, Sammy and the Boy with the Red Cap, and all the other children of Anytown were introduced with their pleasures and problems of community living.

Because the stories introduce situations which are so true to the daily life of children in the third grade, the reading encouraged many valuable discussions. It seemed easy to use the phraseology of Miss Perkins and to talk of the "giants" which get in and spoil the neighborhood. When Molly and Morton brought sickness to several children because they disobeyed their parents and disregarded the quarantine law, the class talked of some of the concrete results which may follow disobedience. When Sammy Goldberg proved a friend to those who had ridiculed him because of his Jewish heritage, the children talked of the fine points of other nationalities. The story of *Hamilton's Hallowe'en Pumpkin* was read during the last week in October, and its emphasis upon respect for the property of others was not forgotten on Hallowe'en. A story of Marie's helpfulness at Christmas time prompted a desire on the part of the children to be "good fellows" and bring joy to others at that time of the year.

*A Series of Letters to Children Interested in Farm Life*¹²

The children in several first-grade rooms were interested in farm life. Various projects and studies were in process and the

¹¹ Jeanette E. Perkins, *The Knights of Anytown* (Boston: Pilgrim Press, 1923), 159 pages.

¹² Reported in *A Program of Character Education* (First Grade), Pontiac (Michigan) Public Schools, 1930.

interest was to continue through the semester. The teachers met with the supervisors and prepared a series of letters, one of which was to be delivered to the children in each room on Monday of each week. In these letters an imaginary boy who was named "Jack" suggested certain activities and interests related to character. The following items were emphasized in the series:

- a)* Care of pets.
- b)* Appreciation for the service rendered to us by animals.
- c)* The kindliness and friendliness of animals.
- d)* Appreciation for the beauties of nature.
- e)* Safety rules which may prevent accidents to children.
- f)* Importance of caring for one's body—cleanliness, proper eating, play, and sleep.
- g)* Helping in the work of the home.
- h)* Recognition for good workmanship at school.

In one instance Jack told of the experiences he had when he got lost in the city. This suggested to the children for discussion certain safety precautions which should be observed. Another letter told of a plan by which the class could outline the opportunities for helping their parents with the work of the home. Another told of the series of health stories Jack was reading, which prepared the way for the use of the same collection of stories in each first-grade room. Another letter urged the children to adopt some bird or animal as a class pet, and stimulated various projects. After each letter was received the class would talk about it and lay plans for their own group discussions or activities during the week. Jack became a very real character and the children learned to expect the weekly letter and expressed curiosity as to what Jack would write about the next week. One of the groups wished to answer the letter in some way. The class would decide what to say in the letter and the teacher would print it on a large piece of paper on the wall. Copies of poems, pictures, clippings, or samples of art work of the class were often in-

cluded. The teacher found that these letters not only added interest to the project but also motivated the work of the class in reading.

Guidance in Individual Silent Reading

In grades above the third, teachers and supervisors are beginning to appreciate the value of the selection of reading for the needs of individual pupils. This individualized instruction can be planned with thought of the level of reading skill of the pupil. It can also be planned with thought of the character needs of the child. John may be discouraged because of the obstacles he is being called upon to overcome and may be encouraged by reading some of the chapters in Pupin, *From Immigrant to Inventor*; Russell, *The Conquest of Happiness*; or Coe, *Heroes of Everyday Life*. Cornelia Parker's *An American Idyll*, Emerson's "Friendship," or the poems of love and friendship of many poets may be helpful to Jean who is having difficulty in establishing her standards for friendship with boys. Harold who is bothered by the problem of vocational choice may profit from Kitson, *How To Find a Job*; Bernays, *An Outline of Careers*; or other volumes in this field. John, who is facing the shift from high school to college and its new adjustments will appreciate Larry, *Thoughts of Youth*; or one like Clippinger's *Student Relationships* which is planned to assist college students to orient themselves in the new environment. With a program of individualized instruction and a wide knowledge of suitable books, the teacher has opportunity to do much of individual guidance by the recommendation of suitable books.

Modern Poetry

Edith B. Ader made a study,¹³ under the supervision of Professor C. G. Pendleton of George Peabody College for

¹³ Edith B. Ader, *Modern Poetry and the Social Phase of Religious Education* (Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, Master's thesis, 1928).

Teachers, of modern poetry which would arouse in high-school students an interest in problems of working and living conditions, child labor, underprivileged children, poverty, the life of the immigrant, racial antagonism, war, etc. One is impressed as he reads through this thesis by the number and variety of recent selections that have dealt with social issues of the day. The number that deal with other aspects of conduct is also large. This suggests that the field of poetry, as well as the field of prose, is fertile for the study of those interested in character. Modern poetry courses in high school may well contain much of this type of poetry. In other English courses, in discussion groups, in school clubs, in courses that deal with social problems, poems can well be used to stimulate individual thought and as the basis for group discussion.

Sources of Story Materials

The field of literature is so extensive that it is impossible to give a comprehensive listing of available materials. There are several types of sources with which the teacher should be familiar. There are, in the first place, various collections of stories put out for reading and telling. Most of the recent volumes, or series of volumes, have been prepared with thought of the growing interest in character education and contain selections which have such an emphasis.

There are a few collections of stories for use in character education groups, some of which have been referred to in the samples of methods. The teacher should have available those which have been published both for public-school and church-school use, since both may be helpful.

Recent textbooks have also emphasized the importance of character, and many textbooks offered for reading and literature courses can be secured from the publishers.

The whole field of literature is a storehouse of value if the

teacher can select the materials of value. Starbuck and others associated with the Institute of Character Research at the University of Iowa have with great care classified available literature for children and adolescents and prepared guides for the use of those interested in character education. This classification is made upon the basis of the literary worth of each selection, the ages to which each is adapted, the situation presented, and the type of attitude or conduct which it encourages. From this research have come two volumes, one a guide to *Fairy Tale, Myth, and Legend* and the other a guide to *Fiction*.¹⁴ These guides are of unquestioned value and can be used by the thoughtful teacher with profit. One feels, however, that the authors were too often motivated by the traditional views of the objectives of character education and that their evaluations cannot be accepted uncritically.¹⁵

¹⁴ E. D. Starbuck, F. K. Shuttleworth, and Others (Institute of Character Research, University of Iowa), *Guide to Books for Character*, Vol. I, *Fairy Tale, Myth and Legend*; Vol. II, *Fiction* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1929 and 1930).

¹⁵ Chapter ii contains illustrations of the use of stories under the headings:

- "Plan for the Reading of Biography in High-School English Courses";
- "Character Studies of Men and Women in Fiction";
- "Sir Roger de Coverley and Deception";
- "Life as Portrayed in Literature";
- "Outside and Supplementary Reading";
- "Ideals of the People of Many Lands as Expressed in Their Folk Stories";
- "The Lives of Great Men."

PART III
CLUBS AND OTHER PUPIL ACTIVITIES

CHAPTER XIV

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF OUT-OF-CLASS ACTIVITIES IN A PROGRAM OF CHARACTER EDUCATION

The so-called "extra-curricular" activities of the school, particularly of junior and senior high schools, become such an integral part of the program in many schools that objections are often raised to the terms "extra-curricular" or "extra-curriculum" because they imply that these activities are not a part of the curriculum of the school. Because of the large place they are taking in the program of the school and the widespread feeling that such activities do have character value, they are deserving of rather careful consideration.

In the preparation of the *Yearbook* on "Extra-curricular Activities" which was published a few years ago by the National Society for the Study of Education, an investigation was made of the aims and alleged achievements of such activities. A collection was made of forty volumes and articles by thirty-eight leading writers in the field, and a summary of their statements prepared. Social and moral values were claimed as the chief results, with the following specific values mentioned:¹ "socialization," "training for social co-operation," "actual experience in group life," "training for ethical living," "training for citizenship in a democracy," "training for leadership," "worth-while friendship," "training for worthy home membership," "training in parliamentary usage," and "improved discipline and school spirit."

¹ National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Part II, Extra-curricular Activities* (Bloomington, Ill.: Public Schools Publishing Co., 1926), pp. 9-12.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE CHARACTER EMPHASIS

It can be assumed that there are three possible avenues by which clubs, athletics, musical organizations, social parties, and all of the other types of activities may add to the character influence of the school. This influence can be exerted through the program of the activity group, through the social experience that it provides with other members of the group, and through the rapport or friendship which develops between the pupil and the faculty adviser of the group.

Contributions through the Program of the Activity Group

Properly directed physical activities may promote health, the playing of musical classics increase one's appreciation for the great masterpieces, and participation in public speaking add to the effectiveness of a speaker. There are likewise certain types of programs which seem to be conducive to the development of character, whether they are a part of the regular classroom work or of the out-of-class activities of the school. In general, these are the types of activities which have already been discussed: group discussions, projects which give practice in desirable forms of conduct, dramatization, etc.² The types of programs reported in chapter xv will be found to be merely adaptations of the types of materials and methods discussed in the earlier chapters.

In planning any teaching program it is necessary to consider the type of results to be produced. This basic curriculum principle is a necessary principle of "extra-curriculum" activities. Athletic programs may prepare students for good use of leisure in adult life, but are not likely to do so if they are planned to produce winning teams and athletic stars. Conventional academic club programs are of value in promoting interest and knowledge of history, mathematics, and other academic subjects, but club programs which include the dis-

² See chapters ii, iii, iv, viii, ix, x, xi, xii, and xiii.

cussion of life-situations or which include projects which give opportunity for the practice of desirable forms of conduct may have greater character value. It makes a difference what types of plays, assembly programs, and social parties are held, because it is not the number of activities but the point of emphasis in the program that determines its character value.

Values of the Social Experience in the Group

Large school units have made it more difficult for the school to provide friendly associations for all students. The classroom ordinarily does not provide sufficient opportunities for the forming of friendships. In the informality of the social party, the club, or other activity, friendships are formed which enrich the lives of those who participate and build happy associations about the total school experience.

The "extra-curriculum" activities give opportunity for purposive, social activity. In chapter v it was stated that curriculum units which give such co-operative group experience are of character value. In schools which are organized on traditional lines with little opportunity for pupils to execute plans which they have themselves made, the out-of-class activities may be organized on such a co-operative basis. The principles which were mentioned in chapter v are applicable to out-of-class activities and may often be introduced in such activities with less difficulty than into the classroom.

Teacher-Student Relationships in the Activity Group

Plato said, "One can discover more about a person in an hour's play with him than is possible in a year's conversation with him." Menninger in discussing the mental hygiene values of the Boy Scout movement says:

The fourth and perhaps the most powerful psychological factor in the appreciation of the Scouting program is the transference developed by the Scout to his Scoutmaster. By transference, the writer refers to the unusual feeling, akin to affection, which the

Scout develops towards his leader. The Scoutmaster figuratively becomes the idol, the hero, the originator, and the father; and the boy, the idolator, the worshiper, the follower, and the son. He responds to his leader with an unstinting devotion of time and energy to assigned tasks and loyalty to ideas, and follows out the leader's suggestions to the limit.³

In the present-day school, particularly in the secondary school, there is decreasing opportunity for even friendly conversation between pupils and teachers. This may account for the fact that the findings of the Character Education Inquiry do not indicate that the teacher is a very significant influence in determining the character of the girl or boy. The teacher seems much less of a determining influence than the personal friends of the child. If there was more of normal, friendly association of pupil and teacher, the teacher would, like other friends of the child, become an effective agent. There would be a measurable increase in the influence of the teacher upon the personality of the pupil, and less need for specialists in counseling and child guidance. If every student in the school could have membership in a group in which he could know the teacher in a personal way, it would condition all the contacts of the two, it would break down any feeling on the part of the pupil that teachers are not approachable and sympathetic, and would make it possible for the teacher to know more of the personal problems of the boy or girl.

That activities which partake of the spirit of play tend to break down barriers between students and teachers, and also make it possible for teachers to keep in touch with the daily needs of pupils, is illustrated by a story from the experience of a community-house director. This experience might just as well have happened to a physical education teacher or a club sponsor.

³ W. C. Menninger, "The Mental Hygiene Aspect of the Boy Scout Movement," *Mental Hygiene*, XIII (July, 1929), 501-2.

The director of a recreation program became acquainted with a typical downtown boys' gang through the club program of a community house he was directing. These boys were about fourteen to sixteen years of age. They came from the worst homes of the downtown district and shared most of the problems of such a gang. . . . The boys were seated outside of the director's office one evening previous to their club meeting and when he went to the door they asked him whether or not the janitor of the building smoked. Evidently they had been discussing the subject of smoking. The director said, "Yes, he does, but he has been trying to stop it recently because it has become too much of a habit with him."

A few days after that two or three of the boys from the same gang were walking up the street with the director and one of them said, "Mr. Allen, why don't you smoke?" The boys had been helping put away some mats which had been used for wrestling, so he replied, "I like to wrestle and to engage in other sports and I find I cannot do it as well if I smoke." Several times within a period of two or three weeks members of the gang came to the director with such questions as this. In each case the director answered their questions but at no time tried to give a lecture on the subject of smoking. Then one night a physician was invited to attend the boys' club meeting and talk to them regarding the physical effects of smoking. Evidently the group was gradually making up its mind on this important problem.

One morning, sometime after, the leader of the gang came into the director's office. After discussing a few incidentals he broke out with this statement, "Mr. Allen, I have decided not to smoke." From that time on the director never saw one of the gang smoke.⁴

Although the problem of smoking among boys is more properly considered as a problem of health rather than of character, this illustration indicates the opportunity to influence youth in desirable directions through the informal relationships of club and other activity groups.

The question of the transfer of training is often raised in re-

⁴ Kenneth L. Heaton, *Character Building through Recreation* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929), pp. 16-17.

gard to "extra-curriculum" activities. If a boy or girl learns respect for rules, learns honesty or self-control in baseball or basketball, will he be law-abiding, honest, and controlled in other relationships? Many have assumed that there would be a transfer, but observation suggests that good athletes are not always good citizens. There is still disagreement among educational psychologists as to the principles which operate in the transfer of training. The controversy is outside the province of this volume, but there are a few practical suggestions that seem justified in spite of the state of disagreement. (1) Problems of conduct that arise in activity groups are not essentially different from those that arise elsewhere and the teacher should use the best method she knows for the meeting of these problems. The club sponsor, musical director, athletic or debating coach, will find unusual opportunities for personal conferences and for other ways to offer individual guidance. (2) If a team or other group, or an individual boy or girl, shows fine spirit when playing against an unsportsmanlike team or overcomes other difficulties in a splendid way, such achievement should be given recognition. (3) If a pupil, or a group, is successfully meeting a situation in the activity which is not being met so successfully in other relationships, it may be valuable to make him conscious of the similarity between the two situations. The student may, for example, appreciate the values of abiding by the rules of football but not see a relationship to the question of observing the laws of city and state. Individual conferences and group discussions⁵ can both be used to bring this relationship into consciousness. A starting point is provided by achievement in the activity group for considering problems in the other relationships of life.⁶

⁵ An illustration of the group approach to problems in physical education classes will be found under the heading, "Modification of Teaching Procedure in a Traditional School," in chapter v. See the general suggestions in chapters vi and xvii.

⁶ For the further elaboration of the three ways in which activities contribute to character development the reader is referred to pages 9-38, 157-

THE PRESENT LIMITATIONS OF THE PROGRAM

The program of activities in the average school has not measured up to its full possibilities as a mold of character because of certain factors which are often not recognized by those responsible for the promotion of the program. The first of these factors is concerned with the number of students that are influenced by this phase of school life.

Participation in Activities

A survey of 188 small high schools in the state of Michigan led to the following findings regarding the participation of students in the various out-of-class activities of the school:

1. In half of the schools approximately half of the pupils participated in at least one extra-curricular activity; in a fourth of the schools less than one-fourth of the pupils participated in a single activity, and slightly more than three-fourths do not participate in a single activity; in another fourth of the schools approximately two-thirds of the pupils participated in at least one extra-curricular activity. On the average, one fourth of the pupils participate in extra-curricular activities and from one-fifteenth to a tenth of them participate in three activities.
2. The pupils in the upper classes of the high school participate more extensively in the extra-curricular activities than do the pupils in the lower classes.
3. A very large percentage of the pupils belong to the athletic associations, and a very large percentage of them attend the interscholastic and intramural games. . . .
4. There is a tendency for the pupils participating in one interscholastic sport to participate in two or three, or even four interscholastic sports. This tendency suggest that interscholastic

85, in K. L. Heaton, *Character Building through Recreation* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929). For the question of the transfer of training as related to pupil activities, a valuable discussion is found in an article, "Do Play Traits Breed Life Traits?" by John M. Cooper, which was first published in the *Catholic Charities Review* and reprinted in pamphlet form by the Playground and Recreation Association, New York.

participation is limited to the favored few and that extensive participation is impossible.⁷

A survey of participation in the activities of a large city high school led to rather similar findings for the larger school. This survey was based upon the number of activities in which 171 boys and 221 girls of the 1928 graduating class had par-

TABLE I

No. of Organizations	Percentage of Boys	Percentage of Girls
0.....	4.7	1.8
1.....	1.8	0.9
2.....	5.8	2.3
3.....	8.2	4.1
4.....	11.1	8.1
5.....	11.7	12.2
6.....	11.7	12.2
7.....	10.5	16.7
8.....	11.7	11.8
9.....	8.2	10.8
10.....	5.8	5.4
11.....	2.3	5.4
12.....	1.8	4.1
13.....	2.3	2.3
14.....	1.8	0.5
15.....	0.6	0.9
16.....	0.0	0.5

ticipated during the four years of their high-school course. During the four years the boys belonged to an average of 6.2 organizations and the girls to an average of 7.1. The distribution was as given in Table I.⁸ The wide variation in the number of activities in which different individuals participated

⁷ National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-fifth Yearbook*, Part II, p. 95. Quoted by permission of the Society.

⁸ Adapted from Charts I and II in Kenneth L. Heaton, *A Study of the Recreational Life of High School Students* (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1931), chap. ii.

seems even greater when the nature of certain activity groups is considered. The majority of students who belonged to any organizations belonged to two groups which were little more than organizations in name and required little of the members' time or activity. There were no regular meetings or requirements except for the officers. If these two groups had been eliminated from the tabulation, there would be a much larger number of graduates who had in four years belonged to no activity groups, or to only one or two. This same study included a more detailed investigation of the activity program of a smaller group of students, and from the findings made in both aspects of the study the following conclusions were drawn:

1. That there is a wide variation in the number of activities to which different individuals belong.
2. That there is a differentiation in the numbers of activities of sophomores, juniors, and seniors, with a wider variation in the number of activities in the upper grades.
3. That certain individuals are limited in their organizations to groups which do not provide a small social grouping or a great amount of participation by the individual member.
4. That in the case of those students who have several activities there is a tendency for them to specialize in activities which are similar rather than those which would give a more varied experience. Some concentrate on athletics, others on dramatics, music or journalism, still others on military groups or academic clubs of a particular type.
5. One might think that those most busy in school activities would be the least interested in those outside (the school), and vice versa, but such was not the case in this instance. There were individuals for whom this proved to be true, but it was not generally the case.⁹

The findings on such studies as those reported above have practical significance. Whatever character values there may

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 30, 215-16.

be in such activities are shared by the minority rather than by the majority of students. If this aspect of the school program is to contribute its maximum to the student body, there must be a readjustment which will bring a larger number of students in touch with it. In many junior high schools and some senior high schools a more convenient scheduling of activities, a wider variety of activities, and groups planned particularly for untouched groups have served to broaden the influence and to make "extra-curriculum" activities more a part of the total curriculum.

Violation of Character Values

Often in the promotion of clubs and other activities with the highest of aims, the school has been unconscious of some of the by-products which were not in harmony with the same high aims. This error has been brought to public notice most often in relation to high-school and college athletics, although the shortsightedness is not limited to this field.

Probably no type of project received so early, distinguished, and nearly unanimous approval by eminent educators as college athletics. Here we have initiative on the part of students; teamwork; self-imposed discipline; management that requires continuity and presence; consequences that count, and student judgment upon achievement. Who has not heard college presidents speak glowingly of the educational values of this experience, particularly of the development of rigid self-control on the part of individuals, and of training in unity and cooperation? But some consequences occurred that were not "denominated in the bond." What happened when the football team "broke training" for good at the end of the season was not in the educational spotlight; only rarely did the sort of business training acquired in competitive, gate-receipt games come before the footlights; not but a few inquisitive, scientific minds stopped to find out what physiological after-effects might be expected. "I cannot dive in my old form," said a "grad" to me when we were talking together some five years after he finished his

football career; "I supposed that I was through with my knee injury when I left the university but I find I was not."¹⁰

The same shortsightedness has been in part responsible for some students devoting too much of their time to "extra-curriculum" activities to the neglect of other school interests. It has led to the development of a group of "stars" who spend all of their time in athletics, or all of their time in public speaking, or all of their time on music. The growth of the "star" lacks balance or symmetry, and other students have less opportunity to participate in activities.

The same lack of foresight has led to the use of prizes, awards, and other artificial stimuli, and also to the use of activities to raise money and advertise the school.

Extra-curriculum activities should be conducted for the education of children and not for the purpose of advertising the school or raising money for the school treasury. . . . The practice of exploiting boys and girls on "winning teams" for the sporting element of the town cannot be too strongly condemned.¹¹

Disregard of the by-products has led to the common practice of making students achieve a satisfactory scholarship record before they can participate in various activities of the school, with the result that the activities are set apart as something outside of the program of the school, and that activities are surrounded with a "halo" while academic studies are made to seem as ordeals to be endured before admittance is gained to the real joys of school life. The *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence says that "satisfactory scholarship record should not be made a pre-requisite for participation in extra-curriculum activities."¹²

¹⁰ George A. Coe, *Law and Freedom in the School* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924), p. 12.

¹¹ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Tenth Yearbook*, p. 228.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 229.

Credit can be given to the sponsors for a genuine effort to make of their activities a genuine character influence, but in the promotion of the details of the program they have not always been conscious of marginal results which violated character values.

Miscellaneous Problems

Mention has been made of two major reasons why clubs and other pupil activities have failed to achieve fully the results which have been hoped for them: (1) many students have not shared equally in opportunities offered in this part of the school program, and (2) the sponsors have been unconscious or neglectful of some of the by-products of their efforts which were detrimental to character development. There are other problems of almost equal importance.

The group of forty leading writings on the subject reviewed in the *Twenty-fifth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education listed nine major obstacles to the success of "extra-curriculum" activities. These obstacles were mentioned as preventing the highest achievement and in some instances as even making the activities a detriment to the student. The first five of these items, at least, are definitely related to the character influence of the programs. The reader will readily understand their significance without further comment.

1. Extent of participation (mentioned 22 times).
Individuals participate too little or too much.
2. Anti-social practices (16 times).
Secret societies, cliques, etc.
3. Supervision (14 times).
Teachers are unwilling to supervise, are unconvinced of their value, or dominate activities just as they do class work.
4. Economic considerations (11 times).
Activities too costly, waste or poor accounting of funds.

5. Outside interference (5 times).
Spectators and alumni demand anti-educational lines of emphasis.
6. Duplicating activities (4 times).
7. Lack of centralized policy and control (3 times).
8. Conflicting schedules (2 times).
9. Unsatisfactory facilities (2 times).¹³

For detailed discussion of the problems of the various types of activities the teacher is referred to the *Twenty-fifth Yearbook*, particularly to chapters xi-xiv.

PRINCIPLES OF ADMINISTRATION

The following principles for organization, administration, and supervision of activities were gleaned from the forty writings and included in the *Twenty-fifth Yearbook*¹⁴ of the National Society for the Study of Education. For the information of the reader an asterisk(*) has been placed before the ten principles which were most often mentioned in the writings.

1. Centralization of organization and administration.
 - *a) Under school direction and control.
 - b) Some plan of unification and centralizations.
 - c) Authoritative sanction for new organization.
 - d) Veto power of principal on all actions.
2. Supervision.
 - *e) Supervision for all activities.
 - *f) Guidance and co-operative leadership rather than complete direction.
 - g) Appreciation of value by teachers.
 - h) Responsibilities for all teachers.
 - i) Expert knowledge of all sponsors.
 - j) Selection and promotion of teachers in part for extra-curricular loads.

¹³ National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-fifth Yearbook*, Part II, p. 13. Quoted by permission of the Society.

¹⁴ Part II, pp. 14-18.

- k) Adjustment of teaching schedules for heavy extra-curricular loads.
- 3. Scope and participation.
 - l) Adaptation of organization to school.¹⁵
 - *m) Gradual, not sudden development.
 - n) Source in curricular life of school.
 - *o) Higher aim than sociability only.
 - *p) Wide variety of activities.
 - *q) Leeway for individual student choice.
 - *r) Participation by all students.
 - *s) Membership equally open to all.
 - t) Limitation of number to which any student may belong.
- 4. Other administrative problems.
 - u) Definite scheduling of organizations.
 - *v) Part of regular program.
 - w) Few if any evening meetings.
 - x) High school the meeting place.
 - y) Students the only members.
 - z) Expenses moderate.
 - aa) Co-operation of homes.¹⁶

Certain of these principles are more significant than others when considered from the angle of the character values of the activity program. Activities planned for their character influence need not have their "source in the curricular life of the school," and will not be particularly effected by some of the other suggestions in the list. They will, however, be planned with thought of "higher aims," and will emphasize "individual student choice" and a wide measure of "participation by all students." It is essential that the value of these activities be fully appreciated by teachers, that the sponsors of these

¹⁵ "This is clearly an admonition against taking over in some school, without consideration of adaptability to local needs, the plan operative in another school, or some proposed 'standard' organization of activities" (*ibid.*, p. 16).

¹⁶ P. 15. Quoted by permission of the Society.

groups be particularly gifted with "expert knowledge," and that the total program be the product of "guidance and co-operative leadership rather than complete direction." These principles are essential for the development of the most significant program, for the planning of constructive group experience, and for the establishment of effective teacher-student relationships.¹⁷

¹⁷ More specific suggestions for the administration of different types of activities will be given consideration in chapter xv.

CHAPTER XV

TYPES OF CLUBS AND OTHER PUPIL ACTIVITIES WITH CHARACTER VALUE

The various forms of activities which are illustrated in this chapter are selected because they have seemed to achieve character values through one or more of the three ways which were assumed in the preceding chapter: (1) through the program of the activity group, (2) through the social experience that it provides, and (3) through the friendly relationship established between pupil and group sponsor or adviser. On the whole, it has been easier to find illustrations of activities that have made use of the second and third avenues of influence. Many activity programs give a valuable social experience, and give opportunity for friendly relationship between pupil and teacher, while the center of interest in the activity itself is not the character emphasis. This is due to the fact that in the average school the activity program has been dominated largely by academic interests, athletic and other competitive enterprises.

As far as possible, the illustrations have been selected because they have represented the effort to use all three avenues for character emphasis. They are grouped on the following pages under the headings:

1. Clubs
2. Honor Societies and Similar Forms of Recognition
3. Assembly Programs
4. All-School Projects Which Give Practice in Desirable Forms of Conduct
5. All-School Projects That Influence Group Attitudes
6. Social Parties

It will be obvious to the reader that the constituent element in these "extra-curriculum" activities are not unlike those that were discussed in the chapters of Parts I and II. The programs of clubs, assemblies, and other activities are made up of discussions, projects of various types, dramatizations and stories, and other methods already considered. In fact, the sponsor of such activities will have an interest in the subject of practically every chapter in this volume. It is this close relationship to the entire teaching process that has caused many to feel that these activities should be referred to as "curriculum" activities rather than as "extra-curriculum" activities.

CLUBS

The teacher who desires to organize a school club with character value may use one of two general procedures in the planning of the program. He may work with the group in the developing of their own plan of activities, or may take over some standardized program already developed.

Let us suppose that a group of girls comes together in a junior high school to form an organization according to the first of these plans. The preliminary meetings may be planned to make the girls better acquainted with one another. While this acquaintanceship is being developed, the sponsor may raise the question as to the nature of the programs desired in the future. The group may decide to devote the first month or two to some school-service project. As they work together on this project it may be discovered that there are problems in their daily life about which they would appreciate the sympathetic discussion of the group. A series of meetings may be devoted to such discussion. This may be followed by an interest in dramatics, and the group may decide to write a play which will introduce and suggest a solution for some of the difficulties of the first-term students in junior high school, to be presented in assembly at the opening of the second semester.

The month of February may find their interest centered in the care of a needy family in the community. For the remainder of the year they may start a correspondence with a group of school children in Germany, and may spend their meetings writing letters, preparing a scrapbook telling of their school and community, reading German folk stories and biography, enjoying the music from great German composers, and discussing current events in Europe. The flexibility of such a program, and the democratic way in which it is developed, makes it possible to plan each meeting to enrich the experience of the girls who participate in it. Some of the illustrative paragraphs that follow, as well as those in the chapters of Parts I and II, will suggest activities which can be included in the program of such a group.

The same group of students might have been organized as a unit of one of the national organizations for their age. Various of these standard club programs have been introduced in schools. They provide associations with a congenial group under wholesome adult leadership, but the activities which make up the program are not always suited to the needs of the school. The *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence says that "extra-curriculum activities should grow out of and enrich the regular program of the school"¹ while the editors of the *Twenty-fifth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education found among the writings of the leaders in the field of activities "an admonition against taking over in some school, without consideration of adaptability to local needs, the plan operative in another school, or some proposed 'standard' organization of activities."² Some of the standard programs are not easily adjusted to the total program of the

¹ Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, *Tenth Yearbook*, p. 228.

² National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-fifth Yearbook*, Part II, p. 16.

school and to the needs of individual groups of students. Some of these programs do not emphasize activities that are in themselves particularly valuable from the standpoint of character, although the program may provide valuable associations with other students and with teachers or leaders.

A part of the difficulty in adapting standard programs to the school curriculum is due to the fact that some were developed on the basis of a psychological theory which does not emphasize normal life-interests. A popular theory of psychology a few years ago was that of "recapitulation." According to this theory, the boy or girl as he grew from birth to maturity recapitulated or "relived" the life of the race. It was the function of education to give to the child freedom to follow this pattern of natural growth, freedom to express his natural impulses as he passed through the various stages of development from savagery to civilization. On the basis of this psychology certain club programs were planned. They included a predominance of activities suited to the demands of an earlier era of social development. Although in their statements of theory the programs have adopted more modern principles of education, they still retain the activities which were planned according to the recapitulation theory of development. The emphasis should be placed upon the daily experiences of the child; for the boy and girl must learn to live in his own community today, rather than to learn the skills of some earlier savage existence. The best activities are those which emphasize the activities of present-day life rather than those of primitive man.

Some of the standard programs have also been criticized because of their emphasis upon merit badges and other forms of award. This topic is discussed in the next section under the heading of "Honor Societies and Similar Forms of Recognition."

In view of these limitations of the standard program it is

important that they be adapted and supplemented when used for their character value. Some are more easily modified than others, but the resourceful teacher will see opportunities to introduce desirable elements into any. A group of boys organized as Boy Scouts will want to pursue the activities related to Scoutcraft. This program can be supplemented, however, with discussions of life-situations, with stories of character value, with projects that give practice in conduct of a socially significant type, with service enterprises, with many forms of activity introduced because of their relationship to the character needs of the boy. Many leaders of Boy Scout troops and other clubs with standard programs are making this type of adaptation successfully.

Illustrations of programs with local and national plans of organization are given in the paragraphs that follow.

A List of Club Groups

The following activity groups are mentioned as having "civic-social-moral" value by the *Twenty-fifth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education.³ The majority of them are club groups.

Civics clubs	Girls' clubs
Guidance clubs	"Social" clubs
Thrift clubs	Honor societies
Parliamentary law clubs	Leaders' clubs
Junior Red Cross	Bible-study clubs
Social service clubs	Sunday-school classes or clubs
School patrol	Y.M.C.A
Home-room club	Y.W.C.A.
Class organizations	Hi-Y
"Houses"	Boys' Welfare clubs
Informal social affairs	Girls' Welfare clubs
Banquets, spreads, suppers	Boy Scouts
Assemblies	Girl Scouts
General organizations	Campfire girls
Student councils	Boys' clubs

³ Part II, p. 22. Quoted by permission of the Society.

Organizations To Render Service for Each Essential Need of the School

Terry suggests that there should be some one or more organizations in each school that are given responsibility for each of the essential needs and services of the school. He lists some of the most important needs of the typical school. It is his suggestion that the administration of the school review such a list and sponsor groups to render each type of service.

1. Protection of property belonging to pupils and to the school.
2. Maintenance of sanitary conditions.
3. Regulation of traffic, both ordinary and in case of fire.
4. Protection of the good name of the school.
5. Promotion of morale.
6. Control of disorganizing elements such as cliques and antisocial individuals.
7. Assimilation of new pupils into the privileges and responsibilities of school citizenship.
8. Prevention of wasteful duplication on the part of different organizations.
9. Encouragement of scholarship and meritorious citizenship.
10. Provision for the dissemination of news and information and for the expression of public opinion in the student body.
11. Efficient financial accounting for all organizations.
12. Co-operation of student body and faculty for the furtherance of common interests.
13. Representation of the school in interscholastic contests and in its relation with the community.
14. Wholesome entertainment for the school and the community.
15. Opportunity to develop the worthy personal and social interests of pupils and teachers.
16. Opportunity for training in the rights and duties of followership and leadership.⁴

⁴ P. W. Terry, *Supervising Extra-curriculum Activities* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1930), p. 392.

Civic Industrial Clubs in Chicago Schools

The Chicago Association of Commerce has, in co-operation with the Chicago Board of Education, organized Civic Industrial clubs with the following objectives:

1. *To Know Chicago Better*—by studying the civic problems of our city—by analyzing Chicago's industrial resources, activities, and opportunities.
2. *To Work for Our School, Our Neighborhood, Our City*—to do something to make Chicago a better place in which to live, to work and to play.
3. *To Fit Ourselves More Definitely for the Business World and Other Future Contacts*—by the course of practical programs (popularly conducted) designed to supplement our school's curriculum.
4. *To Assist Our High School*—to maintain an organization to which the faculty can entrust various student activities in line with the foregoing aims.⁵

These clubs sponsor trips through manufacturing plants and business institutions, public institutions, and places of educational interest. They promote assembly talks about civic and industrial life in Chicago. They have organized scholarship funds; supplied food, milk, clothing, and other necessities to worthy families; built athletic fields and school gardens, and provided needed school-building equipment; encouraged thrift and economical dress; addressed junior high school students to urge high-school attendance; encouraged citizens to register and vote; promoted campaigns for fire and accident prevention.

One of the major activities has been the entire direction of the annual "Clean-up and Paint-up Campaign." A report of this program as conducted in 22 high schools and 135

⁵ National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-fifth Yearbook*, Part II, *Extra-curricular Activities* (Bloomington, Ill.: Public Schools Publishing Co., 1926), p. 98. Quoted by permission of the Society.

grammar schools in 1925 gives the achievements as listed in Table II.⁶

During the past five years the Association of Commerce has left the administration of these clubs to the separate schools, except for the sponsoring of the annual clean-up campaign.

TABLE II

	No.		No.
Alleys lots cleaned.....	39,434	Old signs removed.....	13,914
Ash cans emptied.....	82,024	Out buildings painted..	9,733
Attics cleaned.....	31,070	Porches cleaned.....	78,192
Back yards cleaned....	110,204	Rats killed.....	46,845
Basements cleaned.....	58,892	Rooms painted.....	41,577
Fences painted.....	15,187	Rubbish piles burned..	64,599
Fences repaired.....	29,645	Shrubbery planted....	35,320
Floors varnished.....	29,801	Street name signs plant- ed.....	5,067
Flower gardens planted.	55,002	Trees planted.....	46,783
Flower boxes planted...	25,251	Trees trimmed.....	26,774
Front yards cleaned....	75,799	Vacant lots cleaned....	25,152
Grass plots cleaned....	40,833	Vegetable gardens plant- ed.....	40,856
Gutters cleaned.....	16,552	Walls papered.....	22,004
Houses painted.....	10,251	Woodwork varnished...	28,763
Insect breeding places destroyed.....	25,753	Total.....	1,131,277

These clubs are found in grammar as well as in high schools with a variety of programs similar to the plan which was originally outlined by the Association.

Citizens Club

Meyer makes the following suggestions for a Citizens Club (other names suggested: Civic, Junior Chamber of Commerce, Senate, Conduct, Current Events, International Relations, Historic, Patriots).

⁶ From the report of Chicago Association of Commerce, June 13, 1925.

Collect material, magazines, books, etc., on citizenship; study of governments, their policies and leaders; report on what constitutes good and bad citizenship; study local politics, state elections and national campaigns; sponsor school politics; keep it on a high level; conduct all elections; hold student body meetings and discuss issues and candidates; see that voting is regulated and safe; make posters for good citizenship; have debates on important civic problems; invite prominent people to present certain phases of civic life; visit city hall, county courthouse, state and national capital; have interviews with officials and report results; have candidates for school office sent to student body at assembly period; promote parliamentary procedure; take actual charge of local government for a day under supervision; co-operate with all civic organizations; keep up with trends of time; follow elections and discuss results; develop unbiased opinions and fair evaluations and analyses; hold open forums; have radio parties to hear prominent speakers; study vocational opportunities in government; attempt to lead student body into wholesome attitudes and practices regarding citizenship.⁷

Personality Club (Personal Efficiency, Personal Culture, Social Relations, Ourselves Club, etc.)

Meyer suggests two clubs which are particularly interested in personal conduct.—“Personality” Club and “Culture” Club.⁸ The following activities are suggested for the first of these:

Make charts of desirable and undesirable qualities; study each one in relation to self and other members; evaluate characteristics as regards social and individual rating; reports on persons of outstanding personality and where they possess this force; study personality as expressed in dress, voice, conduct and so on; visit places where there is opportunity of coming in contact with great personalities; have reports of these gatherings on interviews; cultivate charm in conversation and entertainment by practice; stress need

⁷ H. D. Meyer, *The School Club Program*, pp. 116-17. Copyright 1931 by A. S. Barnes & Co., publishers, New York.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 118-19.

and use of personality in modern business life; correct inferiority complex; study emotions and events effected; study social significance of fear, anger, gregariousness, self-assertion and sex; note abnormalities of social conduct and create tolerant attitudes; study advantages of personality in promoting careers and aiding vocational guidance.⁹

Suggestions for similar programs will be found in McKown, *School Clubs*, pp. 433-45.¹⁰

Club Programs That Grow from Week to Week with the Interests of the Members

A group of students formed a club which met weekly to discuss anything of interest to members of the group. During the first semester, problems of school adjustments, study habits, vocational plans, friendships, and a variety of other topics were discussed. Such groups are very valuable if handled in a democratic way so that the students are free to bring up their innermost problems and are assured of serious, constructive discussion. Great demands are made of the leader of such a group and questions will frequently be raised which will make it necessary for him to make himself familiar with little-known fields of knowledge. For a discussion of procedures in such a club the reader is referred to A. J. Gregg, *Group Leaders and Boy Character*.¹¹

Standard Club Programs

The best known of club programs is probably that of the *Boy Scouts of America*.

The aim of the Boy Scouts is to supplement the various educational agencies, and to promote the ability in boys to do things for themselves and others. . . . The method is summed up in the term Scoutcraft, and is a combination of observation, deduction, and

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 120-21.

¹⁰ Harry C. McKown, *School Clubs* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1929).

¹¹ New York: Association Press, 1924. 227 pages.

handiness, or the ability to do things. Scoutcraft includes instruction in Safety First methods, First Aid, Life Saving, Tracking, Signaling, Cycling, Nature Study, Seamanship, Campcraft, Woodcraft, Chivalry, Patriotism, and other subjects.¹²

Boys of ages twelve to eighteen are eligible for membership and those as young as nine years are eligible for the Cubs. The Boy Scouts of America will supply additional information if addressed at 2 Park Avenue, New York.

The *Girl Scouts* have a somewhat similar organization with the program adapted to girls and somewhat more comprehensive in its scope. The membership is open to girls ten to eighteen years of age. All Girl Scouts must show proficiency in certain "key activities" in the fields of camping, woodcraft and nature lore, homemaking, health and first aid, and in community service. In addition to these types of activity which are planned to meet needs common to all girls, the program includes other activities from which the members may make free choice. These selective interests include individual enterprises which members may choose and for the successful completion of which "proficiency badges" are awarded. The national headquarters of the Girl Scouts, Inc., is located at 570 Lexington Avenue, New York.

The *Camp Fire Girls*, for girls eleven years old and older, also grew out of the interest in the work of the Boy Scouts. Its program is built around an honor system but places a greater emphasis upon ceremonials and ritual than does the Girl Scout program.

The system of Honors all began by a very wise man and a very wise woman taking their family of three girls and one small boy up into the Maine woods for their summers. The children learned to swim, to dive, to paddle a canoe, to cook over an open fire, to love the four-footed and winged people of the woods and to know their habits, and best of all to be happy out of doors.

¹² Boy Scouts of America, *The Official Handbook for Boys* (13th ed.; New York: Boy Scouts of America, 1924), pp. 3-4.

At a camp in the woods, just as in most of our homes, there are certain things which have to be done in order that the family life may go on. There are meals to be cooked, beds to be made, wood to be cut, water to be fetched, and numerous other little and even greater tasks. Camping is not any fun if one person does all the chores and the others do nothing but camp. But as you all know, even the chores of camp become irksome just as soon as the novelty of doing them wears off. But these very wise parents, Dr. and Mrs. Luther Halsey Gulick, found a way to keep their children's interest in the work that had to be done. By awarding small honors for each task which was well done, they made popular the pleasure of accomplishment. From these beginnings the great organization of the Camp Fire Girls grew.¹³

Detailed information about their program of Home Craft, Health Craft, Camp Craft, Hand Craft, Nature Craft, Citizenship, and Patriotism can be secured from the Camp Fire Girls, Inc., 31 East Seventeenth Street, New York.

The *Junior Red Cross* provides a program for both elementary and secondary school clubs, the aim of which is:

To promote health, to develop the altruistic tendencies in children, to give practice in good citizenship, and to promote international friendliness among the children of the world. . . .

The program in which the Junior Red Cross thus seeks to co-operate with the schools is a program of activity; or, rather, it is one whose ends are sought largely through activity.¹⁴

The headquarters of the American National Red Cross, of which the junior organization is a subsidiary, is located at 17 and D streets, Washington, D.C.

The *Hi-Y* is sponsored in junior and senior high schools by the Young Men's Christian Association with headquarters at 347 Madison Avenue, New York.

¹³ *The Book of the Camp Fire Girls* (rev. ed.; New York: Camp Fire Girls, Inc., 1924), pp. 10-11.

¹⁴ *The Junior Red Cross and Its Program* (Washington, D.C.: American National Red Cross), p. 3.

The Hi-Y Statement of Purpose in most common use is "To create, maintain and extend throughout the school and community high standards of Christian character." A more recently formulated purpose which is attracting wide attention is "The function of the Hi-Y Club is to bring together those boys who are interested in Christian standards for personal living and for school life and to mobilize their efforts in behalf of whatever is needed to put the spirit of Christian fellowship into every school group and into every school situation."¹⁵

. . . . A standardized purpose and pin have not developed a standardized organization, program, or method of operation. The Hi-Y local club is entirely free to do those things which appeal to its members as being the best.¹⁶

The Young Women's Christian Association, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York, has sponsored the *Girl Reserves* for girls twelve to eighteen years of age.

The object of the Girl Reserve Movement, in direct accordance with the purpose of the Young Women's Christian Association, is to make a contribution to those elements in the life of a girl which set free the ideals and convictions that help a girl to live as a Christian of her age should live and to aid her to put into practice in her community her standards of Christian living.¹⁷

Each form has the same object, namely, the development of individual initiative through self-government and the creating of a group consciousness through group activities.¹⁸

Among the points of emphasis recommended for Girl Reserve groups are religious education, health education and recreation, nature lore, handicraft, story telling, dramatics, discussion, citizenship, thrift, business principles and details, books and reading, vocational guidance, music, camps, and conferences.

¹⁵ *The Hi-Y Tool Chest* (New York: Association Press, 1929), p. 5.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

¹⁷ *The Girl Reserve Movement* (New York: Womans Press, 1923), p. 46. Used by permission of the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association of the United States of America.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 65.

The Sodality of Our Lady is an organization for high-school and college students of the Roman Catholic church.

This is an organization for Catholic Action among young people, is based on character development through religious motivation, and interest in others along the line of charity, distribution of Catholic literature, and apostolic work. It is organized around a Students' Spiritual Council functioning through a group of committees.¹⁹

The Knights and Handmaids of the Blessed Sacrament is found in elementary schools, secondary schools, and colleges, and promotes "personal devotion on the part of the individual member and the spread of this devotion among other Catholics." Additional information about these two organizations can be secured from the central office of The Sodality of Our Lady, 3742 West Pine Boulevard, St. Louis, Missouri.

The Christian Citizenship Program was developed by the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association and includes a program for *Pioneers* (boys twelve to fourteen years) and *Comrades* (boys fifteen to seventeen years). This program is interested in the four aspects of the boys life: intellectual, physical, social, and devotional. The program is flexible and is to be developed upon the basis of the needs of the individuals in the group. These needs are discovered by charting the individual boy's development on a great variety of activities which are grouped under the four phases of life. For information about this program the reader is referred to the International Committee of the Association, 347 Madison Avenue, New York, or to three publications of the Association Press:

Gregg, A. J., *Group Leaders and Boy Character*. New York: Association Press, 1924. 227 pages.

Handbook for Comrades. Association Press, 1920. 436 pages.

Handbook for Pioneers. Association Press, 1919. 411 pages.

¹⁹ From a letter from the executive office of the organization.

The Canadian Standard Efficiency Training Program, developed by the National Boys' Work Board of the Religious Education Council of Canada,²⁰ is very similar but in some respects superior to the Christian Citizenship Program. The *Manual for Trail Rangers*²¹ presents a program for boys twelve to fourteen, and the *Manual for Tuxis Boys*,²² a program for boys fifteen years old and older. The members of these clubs participate in a series of activities which emphasize the physical, intellectual, social, and devotional interests. Achievements along the various lines are measured by a charting plan and are the basis for the awarding of badges. Leaders of school clubs, particularly in junior high schools, should, familiarize themselves with the two programs—the Canadian and the Christian Citizenship programs.

Rural boys and girls from ten to twenty years of age are eligible for membership in *4-H Clubs*. This program is a publicly supported and directed enterprise developed co-operatively by the United States Department of Agriculture, state agricultural colleges, and the county governments.

It is designed to teach through doing and is so organized as to teach better practices in agriculture and home economics, and the finer things of rural life, while at the same time developing wholesome, industrious, public-spirited boys and girls.²³

The program usually centers about some agricultural or home economics project in which each member is engaged at home. There are meetings for the discussion of projects, judging work, exhibits, trips for observation, recreational and social activi-

²⁰ Toronto, Canada.

²¹ Toronto: National Boys' Work Board of the Religious Education Council of Canada, 1918. 360 pages.

²² Toronto: National Boys' Work Board of the Religious Education Council of Canada, 1924. 450 pages.

²³ *4-H Club Members Handy Book* (Chicago: National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work, 1930), p. 1.

ties. The exact nature of the program is left to the initiative of the individual club and leader. Information may be received about the organization from county extension agents, the extension directors of state agricultural colleges, or from the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

HONOR SOCIETIES AND SIMILAR FORMS OF RECOGNITION

There is always a measure of danger in any form of artificial stimulus to good conduct. The "honor society" or "recognition assembly," like the "merit badge" systems of many clubs for girls and boys, may share this danger. They may become, like prizes and rewards of any kind, an end in themselves. Hartshorne, in one of his earlier writings, makes a suggestive statement:

Unless already spoiled by unwise teaching, the child is not intent on seeking his own happiness, but on following out certain interests, whithersoever they may lead him. We adults come along, and by our punishments and rewards we get the poor little duffers thinking not about things to do and bigger and smaller enterprises, but about their own happiness or unhappiness, or their own pleasure or pain, and then when we have distorted their motives by forcing them prudently to consider what effect a deed had upon their pleasure we try to correct the fault by persuading them that pleasure is to be found, not by seeking it for oneself, but by seeking it for others, and so we substitute a higher self-regard, which deliberately chooses to serve because, by serving, one can attain temporary or eternal bliss.²⁴

Kilpatrick speaks of all honors and rewards as "scaffolding."

"We may put up a scaffold if that is the only way or the best way to build the house, but it is the house we expect to live in and we mean to tear the scaffolding down."

²⁴ Hugh Hartshorne, *Childhood and Character* (Boston: Pilgrim Press, 1919), p. 160.

"If taking down the scaffolding causes the house to fall, we have failed?"

"Exactly so; that's a good test."²⁵

If such devices as the honor society are to be used, the teacher and administrator must guard against overemphasis upon them. Elections of those to be honored must be upon the basis of the highest criteria and as free from error as possible. The honor must always be a form of recognition for achievement and too much stress not put upon it as an inducement or incentive to added effort.

Honor Societies

There are many types of honor societies. The oldest type was one that recognized only scholarship. *Cum laude* is an example of such. Others have been rewards for achievements in other fields, such as the Oasis Society of the Polytechnic County Day School (Brooklyn, N.Y.) which grants membership upon the basis of the number of activities in which the student participates.²⁶ The concept of the "all-around life" has led to more comprehensive types of groups such as the *National Honor Society for Secondary Schools*. This organization was sponsored by the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association to emphasize scholarship, leadership, character, and service. These four criteria are made the basis for election to membership.

Since its formation in 1923, the *Co-operation-in-Government Committee* has awarded over three thousand medals and diplomas to the graduates of New York City high schools who have shown "a power for participation in government under the law and an awareness of the ideals and practices of active

²⁵ W. H. Kilpatrick, *Foundations of Method* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1925), pp. 335-36. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

²⁶ P. W. Terry, *Supervising Extra-curricular Activities* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1930), p. 163.

citizenship." This committee has followed the career of these graduates for five years after graduation and awarded a second token of recognition to those who have given evidence of "continued practice of co-operation in government."²⁷

The *Service League* of the Morris High School (New York City) was organized to give rewards for service in lunchroom, library, print shop, halls, and elsewhere in the school. Nominations are made by any student. The nominee, who must be of the junior or senior class and have a satisfactory record in conduct and scholarship, is then voted upon by the faculty and the active members of the League. This society is not only an honor group but a very effective service group, doing many things which are usually allotted to student councils.²⁸

A Recognition Assembly for Elementary Grades

V. O. Graham, principal of the Schubert School in Chicago, reports a "recognition assembly" which brings together in his elementary school all of the children and the parents to honor students who have shown marked success either in helpfulness or in the display of other desirable characteristics. Mr. Graham says:

The set of things recognized is not always the same, but in general the following are included: all pupils neither absent nor tardy during the semester; the most helpful pupil in each room; pupils with highest scholarship—one from each room; monitors; patrol boys; and bell boy.

The program is arranged with music and club activities which provide for the recognition of the pupils in the various groups.

The results of this program proved surprising even to the more conservative. The school atmosphere changed and children were pervaded with the desire to do something for their room group or for the school.²⁹

²⁷ *Education*, LII (May, 1932), 522-25.

²⁸ P. W. Terry, *op. cit.*, p. 165.

²⁹ *Chicago Schools Journal*, XIV (September, 1931), 34.

The "Citizenship Ballot" of the Lincoln School

A few years ago the students of junior high school age in Lincoln School of Teachers College prepared a ballot which could be used in their school elections to select the boys and girls who deserved to be their Citizenship Representatives. The preparation of this ballot was also planned so that the entire student body would be led to a consideration of the qualities which are essential in citizenship.

The pupil assembly chairman appointed committees who were to bring to the assembly reports on the different items in the proposed ballot. The reports were carefully considered and revised by all of the boys and girls before the final form was prepared. A copy of the ballot as it was finally used is given here.³⁰ It will be noted that the ballot gives opportunity for the selection of a first and second choice in the consideration of each characteristic, and also that there is no place for signature. The students merely noted whether they were boys or girls.

	First Choice	Second Choice
<i>Sportsmanship</i> Is a good loser; wins without conceit or boasting; knows the rules of the game; plays fair; controls his temper; disdains "squealing"		
<i>Fellowship</i> Is an optimistic, cheerful companion; values friendships; recognizes and extols the good qualities of others; is tactful and kind regarding others' faults; avoids snobishness		
<i>Leadership</i> Accepts responsibility; inspires confidence; keeps mind on task rather than on self; promotes team work; sees a task through; weighs effect of act on future policy; has initiative; has energy; suppresses grouching		

³⁰ From *Journal of Educational Research*, XIV (June, 1926), 9-10.

	First Choice	Second Choice
<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Honesty</i></p> <p>Is truthful; accepts deserved blame; is free from prejudice; rejects gossip; despises thieving</p>		
<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Pride in the Appearance of School</i></p> <p>Keeps locker and cloakroom in order; neat in personal appearance; picks up waste papers; discourages crowding in halls and elevators; is helpful to visitors; avoids unseemly haste</p>		
<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Sense of Economic Value</i></p> <p>Realizes the value of things; is careful of his own property and that of others; realizes that someone has earned and saved to produce all material goods; economizes time; is thrifty</p>		
<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Followship</i></p> <p>Recognizes responsible leadership; values expert opinion; respects past experience; sacrifices self for the sake of the task; co-operates cheerfully for the good of the group; works faithfully on committees</p>		
<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Courtesy</i></p> <p>Actions are prompted by an unconscious kindness of heart rather than mere social forms; deference to elders; helpfulness to those younger and weaker</p>		
<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Loyalty</i></p> <p>Discourages "knocking"; encourages criticism which proposes to improve; has faith in the possibilities of the group; promotes school spirit</p>		
<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Obedience</i></p> <p>Abides by regulations of the school; recognizes authorities; namely (1) teachers, (2) pupils in charge</p>		
<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Trustworthiness</i></p> <p>Has sense of responsibility; keeps his word; can be trusted without supervision</p>		

It has already been stated that these terms were defined after a long period of deliberation, formulation, and revision of

statements on the part of the boys and girls. This period of deliberation gave each student a better understanding of the meaning of the term and encouraged serious voting. The voting was done thoughtfully. Often the pupil could think of no one who could qualify for first or second choice on one of the items so left a blank.

ASSEMBLY PROGRAMS

Various chapters in this volume will propose means by which a character emphasis can be brought into the school assembly. Suggestions as to the type of talks, debates, and discussions are offered in chapters viii, ix, and x. Chapter xii makes suggestions for dramatizations and chapter xiii for the type of stories that may be used. The preceding section of this chapter refers to the "recognition" assembly.

ALL-SCHOOL PROJECTS WHICH GIVE PRACTICE IN DESIRABLE FORMS OF CONDUCT

Many schools find it valuable to have all of the grades in a school building co-operate in one or two projects during the year. It is profitable in that pupils gain experience in working with children of various ages. Such enterprises also serve to build loyalty to the school as a whole. Only two illustrations are given, but many suggestions in chapters x and xi can be adjusted for use by the entire pupil group in a building. The two examples will illustrate the way in which an entire school and often a wide variety of ages can participate in a single enterprise.

For fifteen years the Louisville Normal School has sponsored a "Christmas Toy Shop." Elizabeth Breckinridge, principal, describes the plan as follows:

For weeks in advance the Training School has its posters, "Don't Forget Your Toys," "A Toy from Each Boy and Girl," or "Have You Brought Your Toys?"

Many interested friends and a committee of graduates of the school aid in the collection of toys for "Toy Day." Since it has become a civic project of city-wide interest, large transfer companies each year offer their services in the collection and distribution of our toys.

When the eventful "Toy Day" arrives, piled high on the auditorium stage, are several thousand toys, resembling for all the world a junk heap. Great is the excitement when the representatives of the various classes, completely covered with tags, each of which represents a toy, march to the stage and, in an auditorium, crowded with students, children and friends, give their reports of the number of toys brought in by their classmates.

After the "Toy Day" program, the dilapidated toys are sent to the manual training shops, art rooms and various classrooms of two large training schools and of the college department. Every group in the school has a part in renovating these toys. One grade, for instance, puts in order all of the games that are donated; this frequently means the supplying of missing parts. Another grade cleans and mends many of the books, while other groups are busy originating new games, puzzles and toys of various kinds.

The major part of the work is done during the art and manual training periods. A coat of paint on a wicker doll buggy, a new wheel on a "kiddy-kar," a deft touch of the brush on the face of a doll, or glue, binding tape and scissors on a book change, as if by magic, the old to "as good as new."

In addition to the repairing and decorating of old toys, time and opportunity are given to pupils to invent new ones. Each year there are those who have the ability and initiative to invent novelty toys that recall old Nuremburg. It may be a life-like turtle that rolls along on invisible wheels, or a cat catching a ball, or possibly a whole set of doll furniture that some expert carver has made out of cigar boxes.

Not infrequently children who have left the school to go either to work or to high school send back designs of attractive toys with the request that they be used for the "Christmas Toy Shop."

When all are finished—new toys, examples of the creative ability of children, old toys made new with bright coats of paint and artis-



PREPARING FOR THE CHRISTMAS TOY SHOP

tic decoration—they are carefully displayed upon the auditorium stage. Again students, children and friends of the school assemble for the Christmas program.

By no means the least important phase of the work comes when, after the Christmas program, all except the Transportation Committee have left the auditorium. The hundreds of bright colored toys are gathered together by this committee of students and children and packed into automobiles and other conveyances for distribution among the various institutions for children in the city. . . .

The value of this project has been shown in many ways. It provides an excellent outlet for the ingenuity and creative ability of pupils from the primary grades through the college classes. The different departments of the school are more closely united through the unselfish service given by all in the working out of such a project. Contact with social conditions outside of school develops in children and students a broader social consciousness leading to a more sympathetic attitude toward movements for civic betterment. The spirit of earnestness and joy that pervade the work, the unselfish manner in which the children of the school frequently part with their cherished toys, the hours of extra time voluntarily given by the students, all give evidence of their belief in the truth that "the gift without the giver is bare."³¹

A Courtesy Party

The annual courtesy party of Washington Junior High School, Rochester, New York, is a valuable service project but is particularly valuable in that it brings young people in touch with a group of the aged.

Young people are usually so completely absorbed in the interests of their own age that their sympathies are broadened by such an experience as this.

The first Courtesy Party was held at the end of a ten weeks' courtesy campaign in 1920 and has been given every year since that date.

³¹ *Childhood Education*, VIII (December, 1931), 197-99.

The purpose of this party is to allow the pupils of Washington Junior High School the opportunity of showing courtesy to persons who, through sickness, crippled condition or any other reason, are shut in their homes with no one to give them pleasure.

About one hundred guests are entertained each year in the assembly hall of the school. . . .

The expense of the party is met largely by the pupils of the school. Each home room places a mite box on the teacher's desk for one week preceding the party, into which real sacrifice pennies, nickles and dimes are dropped. . . . Now the party has become so much a part of the school that it may be possible in the future to finance the whole affair without help.

A central committee composed of teachers and the Boys' and Girls' Senior Corps plan the party. Each senior class is given something to do and all seniors attend the party.

Each home room sends a delegate who later gives a report to his home room.

The school orchestra, glee clubs, and athletic clubs furnish the entertainment. The domestic science department helps the senior girls to serve the refreshments. An inexpensive gift is given to each guest. The electrical department decorates the assembly and usually bears a large part of the expense of the decorations. . . .

Every man and woman in Rochester would enjoy looking in at the party. They would be delighted with the tender, solicitous manner in which the senior boys and girls administer to the comfort of their guests, and the way the guests enjoy the gaily decorated assembly, the entertainment and especially the attention of the young people. Upon leaving, one after another of the guests say, "This is the best time I ever had in my life. God bless these dear children."³²

It is important that pupils have associations with those younger than themselves as well as associations with the older generation. A school might well have two courtesy parties in a year—one for the aged and one for little children.

³² J. Cayce Morrison and Arthur E. Layman, *Character Building in New York Public Schools* (Albany, N.Y.: University of the State of New York Press, 1931), p. 29.

ALL-SCHOOL PROJECTS THAT INFLUENCE GROUP
ATTITUDES

It can hardly be expected that most children can be taught to be responsive to social ideals unsupported by group code and morale. When the individual is made the unit of educational effort, he is so abstracted from life situations as to become more and more of a prig in proportion as his teachers succeed with him and more and more the victim of a disorganized and detached mind in proportion as they fail. The normal unit for character education is the group or small community, which provides through co-operative discussion and effort the moral support required for the adventurous discovery and effective use of ideals in the conduct of affairs.³³

This rather striking statement reflects the emphasis which has been brought to education particularly by the socio-psychological school of thought. Since the personality of the individual is formed in so large a degree in conformity with the customary modes of actions, the ideals, and the standards of conduct of the social group, it is very difficult to modify the conduct of the individual without giving consideration to the influence of his social group. Changes in school citizenship can be brought about more easily if the school as a whole is asked to consider the desirability of change. Individual students may decide to accept standards of life which are higher than the average if they make the step in co-operation with a large enough group of friends, but otherwise the individual may be placed in a position in which he must give up the higher standard or else be isolated from normal social intercourse and from the feeling of belonging to the social group. This is an argument for character-education programs which will touch an entire student body or a large group of students rather than a minority group.

³³ Hugh Hartshorne, Mark A. May, and Frank K. Shuttleworth, *Studies in the Organization of Character*, "Studies in the Nature of Character," Book III (New York: Macmillan Co., 1930), p. 379. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

Conferences for boys and girls of high-school age have been sponsored by various groups, particularly by the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations. The apparent success of some of these conferences and the failure of others is partly a matter of the quality of the program, but also due in part to the number of students who participate in them. The Oak Park and River Forest High School (Oak Park, Illinois) has for years held an influential conference for girls. This conference is planned by a committee representing all of the girls' organizations in the school, together with such outside groups as church-school classes and young people's societies. Each of these organizations is permitted to elect a percentage of its membership to attend the conference. The result is that about four hundred of the leaders, representing the various social groups, meet together for three days to consider some important aspect of school life or problems of personal living. A small fee from each of the girls makes it possible to bring in an outstanding leader for the program. During the year following each conference there are periodic meetings of the girls who attended. The size and representative nature of the group that participates in the annual conference and the care with which the representatives are selected give great prestige to any attitudes accepted by the girls during the three-day conference.

Other conferences, even in large high schools, have been able to bring together the entire student body. Pontiac Senior High School does this annually during its "Vocational Week" which is an effort to concentrate the thought of students on the intelligent selection of a vocation. Preceding the conference each of the students³⁴ is given a questionnaire on which he indicates two vocations about which he would like to become more familiar during the week of the conference. These selections are tabulated and a list of thirty or thirty-five dif-

³⁴ There is an enrolment of about 2,200 in the school.

ferent vocations selected for the program. The majority of the types of work are selected because of the number of requests, but exceptions are made in regard to a few vocations of a rather specialized type that do not receive such a large number of votes. The conference is held over a period of four days. Each morning, at the same hour, seven or eight speakers lead the discussion of their particular vocations. During the hours devoted to the meeting there are no conflicting activities or classes in the school, but students are free to attend any groups or to spend the time in study. An outline of the important points to be considered in securing information regarding a vocation is placed in the hands of students and speakers, and forms an outline for group discussion. It is possible during his high-school career for each student to hear twelve vocations discussed under expert leadership. This is valuable, but there is an additional advantage. The concentration of the entire attention of the school upon the value of vocational planning and upon the demands which will be made of the individual when he enters the chosen line of work reinforces the influence of the enterprise. Even if a student should attend none of the discussions he would be convinced that vocational choice is something which is considered by the average student as worthy of careful thought.

Projects, other than conferences, can take advantage of the same type of group approach. Lasker³⁵ tells of the development of what came to be known as a "personality campaign" in a girls' high school which had been noted for its poor discipline and undesirable conduct in and out of school. Student leaders met together and were interested in the plan. These leaders then led discussions in their own classes on matters of: cleanliness of person, cleanliness and orderliness of surroundings, dress, voice, courtesy, honesty, punctuality,

³⁵ Bruno Lasker, *Race Attitudes in Children* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1929), pp. 325-28.

reliability, initiative, co-operation, service, and other aspects of actual school situations. Interest grew, but it was a year later before the student body as a whole was sincerely interested in the "campaign." It was then proposed that a rating system be introduced with a scale based upon the type of things which had been discussed. At the end of the semester each girl was given a copy of the rating which her teachers had given her on each point in the scale. The project continued from year to year with a gradually growing appreciation for good conduct.

SOCIAL PARTIES

The social party in the school can provide opportunities for the forming of friendships under the best of circumstances and can serve as a substitute for less desirable forms of recreation. There is a third benefit that will come from the social party if it includes some of the more cultural and artistic entertainment features. Good orchestra and solo music, group singing, the best in dramatics, good motion pictures, games that are not childish but intellectually and physically stimulating—these will appeal to the finer nature of the child.

PART IV
INDIVIDUAL GUIDANCE

CHAPTER XVI

ORGANIZING THE SCHOOL FOR INDIVIDUAL GUIDANCE

The character emphasis in the program of the school is being expressed not only in group activities but in various provisions for the individual guidance of pupils. Such guidance has arisen with the growing realization that the personality of the child is determined in large measure by the small and what often seem insignificant adjustments which he makes from day to day. These choices and decisions are the materials from which the patterns of thought and action are formed. The personality grows as the child is successful in making permanently satisfying adjustments to the multitudes of life-situations. The personality is stunted as he is unsuccessful in these adjustments. He needs guidance if these situations are to be met successfully. The complexities of modern adult life are so often mentioned that it is unnecessary to speak of them again. Life for the child and adolescent is no less complex and his adjustments are no less vital.

Interest in individual guidance has arisen, furthermore, as the natural result of the scientific observation and testing of the personal characteristics of children. Those engaged in the task of education have become convinced through the findings of research as well as by personal observation that there are fundamental differences in the capacities of children, in their interests, in their needs and problems. Some of these differences have a hereditary basis while others are the result of the accumulated experience of the earlier years of life. In either case these children must be treated as individuals. If they are to gain the most from the educational process each boy and

girl must be assisted to meet those needs and those problems of adjustment which are peculiarly his own.

Still another phase of educational development has served to emphasize the need for individual guidance. There has been a shift of interest with regard to the objectives of the educational process, a shift of which this entire volume is a reflection. It was at one time considered sufficient for the teacher to maintain a smoothly running class program which was favorable to the absorption of the approved body of knowledge which made up the curriculum. Now the objective is to assist children to become skilled in the practice of living and prepared to meet the varied demands of life. Individual guidance could never have had as broad a significance as it has today if education had continued to be concerned primarily with the sharing of subject matter. It becomes a very important phase of the teaching process if education is to be a matter of helping children to make the finest adjustment in all the situations of life.

ORGANIZATION OF THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Some of the individual needs of children can be met by the teacher while others demand the attention of workers with specialized training. Some maladjustments and problems are quickly attended to while others demand a long period of study and treatment. The guidance program must be organized so as to render the maximum of service. Such principles as the following should guide in the development of this form of service:

1. In a good counseling program, the primary consideration is the greatest present and future good of the counselee which is consistent with the welfare of the school and society as a whole. Every other factor in the situation, including the observance of mass standards and requirements, the desire of a particular agent or agency for prestige, and the comfort and convenience of the worker, should be subordinated to the welfare of the child.

2. In a good counseling program, the basis of action in any individual case is all the facts of every type bearing on the case, or at least as many of them as can be secured.
3. A good counseling program, regardless of the size of the school or city, provides for all phases of individual study and adjustment—including physical, mental, emotional, social, educational, and vocational analysis and treatment.
4. A good counseling program provides for using every classroom teacher, as far as may be, as a student of the needs and problems of the individual pupils under his care.
5. A good counseling program provides for some specialization on the part of the professional counselors concerned, in order that diagnoses and treatments may be founded most surely upon unquestioned facts and upon theories of child study accepted by the leaders in each field.
6. A good counseling program utilizes as many sources of information about each case as are needed, but, in order to integrate the program around the child, employs only one or at most very few agents in the actual conduct of the treatment of any one child.
7. A good counseling program is unified and co-ordinated under one person. In the small system, this may be the superintendent himself. In the medium-sized system, an assistant superintendent or supervisor may be assigned this task in addition to his other duties. In the large system, the importance of the activity of individual counseling warrants the assignment of a staff officer to this function as his sole responsibility.¹

In actual practice there are many plans for the organization of the guidance program. Some authorities favor the organization of the guidance program in each building around some one individual rather than about several. If the school has an enrolment of not more than a thousand children, one counselor will need to be vocational and educational counselor, visiting teacher, dean, and personal adviser. Whatever type of problem may arise should be referred to this one individual. If the school system is large enough there should be specialists

¹ Department of Superintendence, *Tenth Yearbook*, pp. 246-47.

(psychologists, psychiatrists, vocational specialists, etc.) with whom the counselor can consult and to whom cases may be referred.

There is a distinct gain when one counselor co-ordinates all the personnel service for a group of students. It avoids duplication of effort, and avoids the danger of disintegration of personality which may result when one child is being dealt with by several different individuals. Many of the larger schools have an adviser who handles an entire grade. He is assigned to the group when it enters the school and follows it through the years spent in the one school. The Providence, Rhode Island, high schools are organized on this basis. In other large schools (such as some of the Detroit high schools) the student body is divided alphabetically without regard to grade. In this way the student has one adviser throughout his school career, but the advisory group contains a variety of ages and changes from year to year as students leave and others enter the school.

It is also possible to use another plan of organization in a large school or in a system which is large enough to support several guidance specialists. There may be several types of workers, each attending to a particular type of problem wherever it may arise in the student body. The attendance officer may attend to all truants, a psychiatric social worker to all problems in emotional adjustment, the vocational counselor to problems of vocational choice, the dean of boys or of girls to problems of discipline, etc. This plan makes possible greater specialization and expertness and has undoubted advantages over the other form of organization. It also has dangers unless there is very close harmony and a conscious effort to co-ordinate the service of all workers. The same child will be coming to the attention of several of the specialized workers, with the result that there may be duplication of effort in study of the case and the child will be confused by

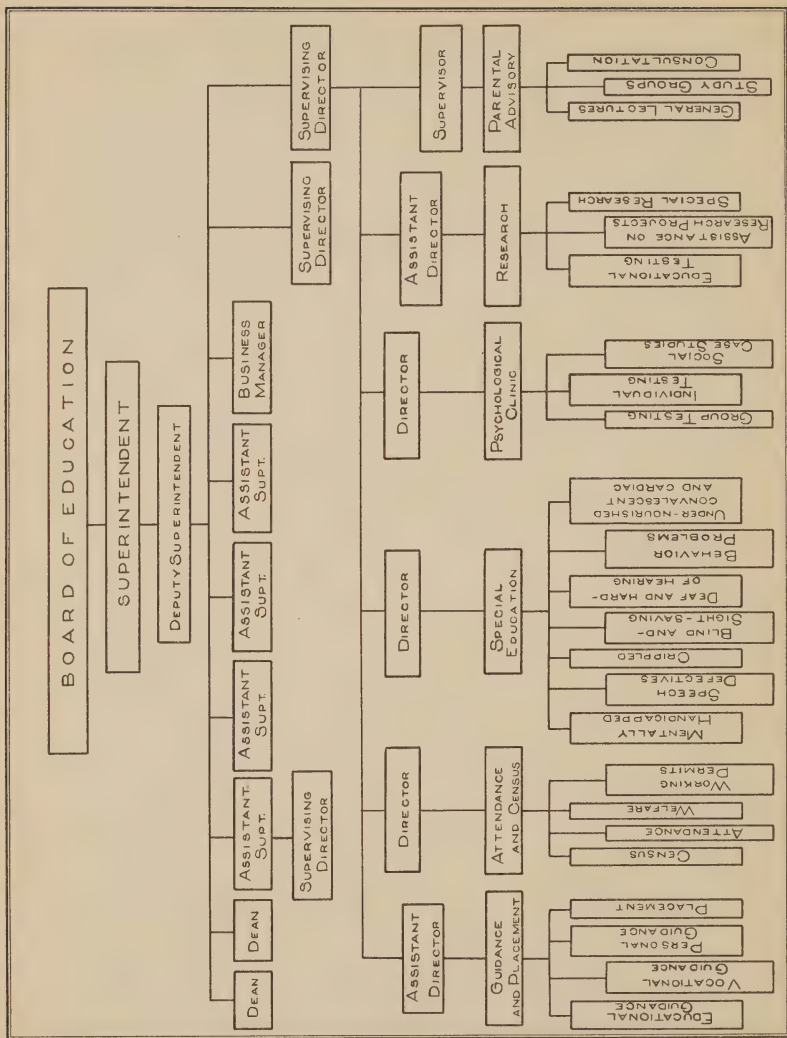
conflicting influences. There must be a desire on the part of each specialist to co-operate with all of the others in the group, and one of the counselors, the principal or assistant principal, or some other officer must be recognized as the co-ordinating agent for the work.

A rather peculiar division of function has been made in many schools, which is worthy of mention. Often there is a separation of so-called "disciplinary" measures from other guidance functions. A particular group of misdemeanors are grouped as disciplinary problems, and those students who are guilty of such forms of misconduct are not sent to the regular guidance agents but to the principal, assistant principal, or other person not associated with the guidance specialists. The result is often very unfortunate because there is a duplication of effort. Furthermore, the handling of the so-called disciplinary problem may be such as to conflict with and render ineffective the more carefully planned efforts of the guidance officer. Whatever the plan of organization that may be followed, it should be integrated and represent a harmonious method of pupil guidance.

The following pages contain illustrations of how several school systems have been organized to provide individual guidance. There are also a few examples of individual schools which have been the working unit for this type of service. Each school and each system must develop its own plan because the nature of it will depend upon the needs of the school and the qualifications of available workers.

Organization of a Department of Child Study and Adjustment in a Large School System

The general plan of organization of the Detroit public schools suggests the relationship of the program of guidance to the total organization of a system, and of the various guidance functions to one another. The chart on page 288 shows



how, under the leadership of Paul T. Rankin, this service was co-ordinated in the department of research and adjustment.

The plan of the Division of Psychology and Educational Research in the Los Angeles city schools is similar to the Detroit scheme and to the plan of organization in other cities in which the program of guidance for maladjusted children is co-ordinated. There are four types of work under the one Division in Los Angeles: (1) a testing program, (2) special classes for atypical groups of children, (3) a child-guidance clinic, and (4) a nursery school.

The testing program in all grades is carried on by trained counselors. Each high school has its own counselor and the elementary counselor has a district of several buildings. These individuals administer the tests, consult with the principals and teachers, and assist in the adjustment of classes and individuals. Pupils are transferred to special classes, programs are readjusted, some are referred to the clinic for attention, etc.

Special schools and single rooms in some of the buildings attempt to provide suitable curriculums for the mentally deficient, those who are merely retarded in their progress, those with special disabilities in reading and spelling, and those with physical handicaps. The attendance work is organized in Los Angeles under a separate division, but many truancy cases are cared for in the special rooms.

The psychological clinic accepts cases referred to it from the schools because of serious education or conduct problems. The work of this clinic is limited in most instances to children who have at least normal intelligence. Subnormal cases are tested and referred to special rooms by the counselors.

The nursery school accommodates thirty children from two to five years of age and is conducted as an experimental center. The director of this school teaches a high-school course in child care, and the staff members are available for conference

with teachers, parents, physicians and nurses, social workers, students.²

*Organization for Guidance in a Rural County*³

Superintendent R. S. Proctor of Craven County, North Carolina, himself returned to college for a semester's study of the methods of counseling as the first step in the organization of a county-wide guidance program. He then started a campaign to get the teachers in the county to take summer school and extension courses in this field. He appointed a director of guidance who works through the county, administering the policies of the superintendent, training school counselors, setting up record systems, testing, helping in the adjustment of pupils, encouraging progressive methods of teaching. The principal is held responsible for counseling in his school. One of his teachers is relieved of a part of her teaching duties to enable her to do group and individual counseling, and is known as the school counselor. The program of the school counselor touches pupils in all grades, both elementary and secondary.

Dean or Adviser as the Center of the Guidance Program

It is hardly necessary to illustrate the type of organization in which the deans or the adviser of girls and adviser of boys are the chief agents. The usual set-up is to have an adviser of each of the sexes in each building in the system. Sometimes the duties are combined with those of assistant principal or principal. Any problems which the teacher cannot solve are referred to the adviser. The effectiveness of this plan will depend upon the size of the school and the skill of the advisers. It is not to be expected that any adviser will be capable of the diagnosis and treatment of all types of cases. It is desirable

² Described more fully by Elizabeth L. Woods in *Childhood Education*, VII (April, 1931), 409-10.

³ *Journal of Education*, CXIII (May 18, 1931), 531-32.

that he have access to specialists who can give more expert advice when it is needed.

The Home-Room Teacher as Counselor

Many schools are organized with the home room as the counseling unit. The home-room group is small and it is easy for the teacher to acquaint himself with the needs of the pupils. The objection to this plan is that teachers are not equally skilful as counselors and that even the best of home-room teachers are likely to lack specific training for guidance work. It is the opinion of the author that the home-room teacher, like the classroom teacher in any school, can render valuable individual service but that there is need for the specialist who can bring to the aid of the teacher more expert analysis and treatment. The home-room plan is presented as only one step in the total guidance program of the school. The need for specialized service is usually realized in schools organized on the home-room basis.

Frederick Clerk⁴ was responsible for introducing such a plan in New Trier Township High School (located in Winnetka, Illinois). Students entering this school were classified on the basis of their past record and the results of intelligence and achievement tests, and assigned in groups of from twenty to thirty to an adviser. The same teacher served as the student's adviser for the entire four years of the course. The adviser was supposed to visit each pupil's home during the first year and it was customary for parents to invite him to dinner. He handled all matters pertaining to the school experience of the child, handled the child's problems, and met the parents when they came to school. There was a daily "advisory period" (presided over by the group president) with announcements, discussion of any problems of school procedure or any social plans, and time for individual conference

⁴ Deceased.

of students with the adviser. Two periods a week were devoted to the discussion of problems of conduct, methods of study, and other matters of educational guidance. The advisers held open the period from 3:00 to 3:30 each afternoon for personal interviews. The problems of discipline were handled by the deans, not by the advisers who appeared only as the friend and interpreter of the child when problems arose.

Clerk's statement regarding the ability of all teachers to serve as advisers is significant.

We have had to take advisership away from some teachers, and found that there are others whom we never care to trust with this responsibility. But a poor adviser is seldom or never a good teacher—to be a good teacher one must know children and be able to secure their confidence; these are the very qualities required in an adviser.⁵

In all elementary, junior, and senior high schools in South Orange and Maplewood, New Jersey, the home-room teacher has been made the pupil's adviser. In the elementary schools the principal is the co-ordinator of all guidance activities. In the junior high schools the home-room teachers in each grade are responsible to a "guide." The home-room teacher follows a class throughout his three years of junior high school experience, but one guide specializes in the needs of seventh-grade children, another in the needs of eighth-grade children, and a third in the needs of the ninth grade. In the senior high school there are three guides who co-operate with the home-room teachers but they do not stay with the pupils of a particular grade but follow a class through the three years spent in high school. At the center of the school system is a Central Guidance Committee which is composed of the supervising principal, all principals, representative home-room teachers

⁵ Quoted in Carleton Washburne and Myron M. Stearns, *Better Schools* (New York: John Day Co., 1928), p. 303. A discussion of the advisory system at New Trier is contained in this volume, pp. 300-303.

from elementary and high schools, all junior and senior high school guides, representatives of the child study and medical departments, and some heads of departments of the academic subjects. This committee is responsible for the entire plan, and brings together all of the resources of the school in the study of children and their needs.⁶

Child-Guidance Clinics as the Center of the Counseling Program

The guidance work in the Winnetka (Illinois) schools was formerly left to the individual teacher and her principal. Then it seemed well to bring in a remedial teacher to co-operate with the teachers in caring for children who needed such service. Next a second remedial teacher was added to the staff. This teacher had been trained in the social case work methods of the child-guidance clinic and was to devote a half of her time to this type of service. One worker at a time was added until the school supported a completely organized child-guidance clinic to which cases could be referred from any of the schools. The Institute for Juvenile Research, a state-supported clinic, contributes the services of a psychiatrist and a psychologist for two days each week. Two pediatricians donate their services for necessary physical examinations. Teachers, principals, supervisors, and parents can refer children to the counselor. The counselor makes the study of the case and consults with the members of the clinical staff as it is found necessary: The counselors teach courses for teachers and parents, hold meetings with principals, arrange case discussion conferences, and plan for courses and speeches by outside specialists. They consult with teachers regarding cases for which clinical study is unnecessary. They do remedial teaching when required as a part of the treatment for

⁶ Described by Superintendent John H. Bosshart in the *Seventh Year-book* of the Department of Superintendence (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1929), pp. 173-74.

cases and make suggestions for changes in teaching and administrative procedures upon the basis of clinical findings.⁷

In Berkeley, California, the guidance work in the school is administered by the staff of a clinic which is in turn sponsored by the Berkeley Co-ordinating Council for Child Welfare. This Co-ordinating Council consists of representatives of the police department, the city health department, and the welfare department, as well as of the Bureau of Research and Guidance of the public schools. These workers were first brought together through a mutual feeling of the inadequacy of any of the agencies in meeting the problems of childhood. It was the feeling that greater progress would be made when all the agencies which deal with maladjusted children were co-operating and co-ordinating their program. One of the outgrowths of the council has been a clinic which has a staff consisting of a psychiatrist, physician, psychologist, and psychiatric social workers. This clinic can be consulted by teachers and workers in any of the agencies represented in the council, and by parents. All of the agencies contribute to the support of the clinic but it operates under the supervision of the superintendent of schools and board of education, and is directed by the assistant superintendent.⁸

Under the supervision of Alfred Adler, the city school system in Vienna has established a total of over forty Children's Advisory Centers in schools and community centers. These centers are in charge of teachers who have been trained by Dr. Adler and carry on the work in the afternoon and evening, after school hours. Physicians with psychiatric training are

⁷ Described by Frances Dummer Logan in *Childhood Education*, VII (April, 1931), 405-8. See also *Twelfth Annual Report of the Criminologist* (Springfield, Ill.: Department of Public Welfare, 1930), pp. 68-70.

⁸ Virgil E. Dickson, "Berkeley Coordinating Council," *Mental Hygiene*, XIII (July, 1929), 514-19. Reprinted by the National Council for Mental Hygiene, 1929.

available to assist these teachers when more expert service is needed, and complete clinical service can be secured from a children's hospital. The Advisory Centers are open one day a week and anyone is free to avail himself of the service. Both the teachers and physicians donate their services. The first of these centers was established in Vienna in 1915. In 1929 the same plan was introduced in Berlin on an experimental basis.

A PLAN FOR DISCOVERING STUDENTS IN NEED OF GUIDANCE

The program of counseling in the school system must be so organized that it provides for the discovery of problems as well as for the treating of the problems of children. It should be possible to discover the beginnings of maladjustment before the acute stage is reached and to give preventive as well as remedial service. The periodic physical examination is recommended to prevent serious health problems and thereby reduce the necessity for much illness and for much remedial service. It would be desirable if a periodic "personality" examination could be given in order to uncover mental ill-health in its early stages.

Intelligence tests and educational achievement tests have been used in this way. It is possible at the beginning of the semester to measure the ability and educational background of pupils and to adjust the curriculum to the level of ability and of attainment. This often prevents the teacher from overestimating the capacity of the child and expecting impossible things from him. This procedure is equally valuable in the discovery of superior pupils who are capable of doing more than the average, and who should have a program adjusted to their particular needs.

It is not possible to measure other phases of personality with the same assurance of value that has been attained in the

measurement of intelligence and educational achievement but a beginning has been made in the measurement of ethical knowledge and ideals, attitudes, and the conduct of children. It is not as easy to examine the mental health of the child as it is to examine his physical condition because of the different nature of personality, its complexity, and the rapidity with which it changes. It would require a great battery of tests to examine all aspects of the personality, and by the time the series was completed the changes in the child would be such that another series would be needed to bring the findings up to date.

Many of the instruments that have been thus far developed are not very reliable except in the hands of experts, and even the expert does not place too much reliance upon the findings on one or a few of these tests. Despite this fact, however, the time is at least approaching when tests, questionnaires, and rating scales may be of great service in the periodic examination of children's behavior and mental health.

Symonds and Jackson⁹ describe a method used in several high schools near New York City to discover any needed adjustments among students before they would otherwise have come to the attention of the teacher. Two instruments were used. One was a questionnaire to find out whether the pupil was happy and contented with his own life as it was being lived. The other was a type of rating scale on which each pupil rated other pupils in the school. The teacher and principal were absent when the questionnaire was presented because it was thought the children would be less reticent in their expressions. The questionnaire included 175 questions, all of which could be answered "Yes" or "No." They covered the following forms of adjustments.

⁹ Percival M. Symonds and C. E. Jackson, "An Adjustment Survey," *Journal of Education Research*, XXI (May, 1930), 321-30.

	No. of Items
Adjustment in relation to the curriculum	24
Adjustment in relation to the social life of the school . . .	23
Adjustment in relation to the administration	14
Adjustment in relation to the teachers	33
Adjustment in relation to the other pupils	33
Adjustment in relation to the home and family	36
Adjustment in relation to personal affairs	12

The rating form was patterned after the "Guess Who" test used by the Character Education Inquiry and described by Hartshorne and May in *Studies in Service and Self-Control*.¹⁰ Thirty-four descriptions of maladjusted children were assembled from the literature on mental hygiene. Each student was asked to name the person in the school that each description resembled. These two devices brought many children who needed help to the attention of the experimenters. In Leonia High School¹¹ these same techniques were used and each student was also asked to write a story of his life which covered home background, childhood experiences, school experiences, personal interests and hobbies, and future plans.

In order to find out whether this group method did uncover those who needed help, case studies were made of those who had given evidence of maladjustment. In addition, at the end of the school year, the teachers' evaluations of all pupils were compared with the forecast made on the basis of the group method. It was Symonds' conclusion that "Both the adjustment questionnaire and the identification sheet would seem to be very successful in discovering at the beginning of the year pupils who would later be recognized as problems by the teachers."¹²

¹⁰ Hugh Hartshorne and Mark A. May, *Studies in Service and Self-Control* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1929), pp. 87-91.

¹¹ Described in *School and Society*, XXXII (October 11, 1930), 501-6.

¹² *School and Society*, XXXII (October 11, 1930), 506.

It would seem possible that other tests, questionnaires, and rating scales might be used similarly. The following references give descriptions of available instruments, many of which might be used experimentally by teachers providing care is taken not to overestimate the significance of findings:

- Hartshorne, Hugh, and May, M. A., *Studies in Deceit*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Book I, 414 pages; Book II, 306 pages.
- Hartshorne, Hugh, May, M. A., and Maller, J. B., *Studies in Service and Self-Control*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. 559 pages.
- Hartshorne, Hugh, May, M. A., and Shuttleworth, F. K., *Studies in the Organization of Character*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. 503 pages.
- Hildreth, G. H., *Psychological Service for School Problems*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1930. 317 pages.
- National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, "Character Education," *Tenth Yearbook*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1932. Pp. 345-404.
- National Education Association, *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. II, No. 4 (June, 1932), *Tests of Personality and Character*, 88 pages.
- Watson, G. B., *Experimentation and Measurement in Religious Education*. New York: Association Press, 1927. 295 pages.

CHARACTER ASPECTS OF GUIDANCE

The guidance program of many schools has been more concerned with educational and vocational adjustment than with other objectives which are at least equally important. There is statistical justification for the statement that helping a pupil select the right vocation, to take the right courses in high school, and to select the right college or professional school for advanced training is not the only important service that can be rendered to him. In view of the studies¹³ of the causes of vocational failure, it is unfortunate that any counselor should give a student vocational and educational information and not assist that same student to mold his attitudes and

¹³ A review of some of these studies is found in the introductory pages of chapter iii.

his conduct so that he will be prepared for constructive participation in the work of the world. It would seem that vocational interviews should emphasize the personal qualifications necessary in each type of work and, as far as possible, should be so directed that the individual pupil would be led to examine his own personal life and to set up a program for personal growth. Pupils considering entrance into a vocation should be led to give more thought to the social aspects of employment—the obligations to society to be observed and the opportunities for social service through the work. Likewise, each step forward in the educational process gives to the pupil greater freedom and, consequently, need for greater skill in self-guidance. There are students that cannot safely go to college, perhaps, until they have been prepared to meet the problematic situations of the new environment.

Vocational and educational counselors have discovered certain points in the education of the child when the need is greatest—periods of shift from elementary to junior high school and from junior to senior high school, times of failure in academic work, the period when the pupil passes the age for compulsory school attendance, the time when he leaves the public school to enter the ranks of employment, etc.—and have learned to concentrate their efforts at these points. There are other crucial points in the growth of the pupil—the time when he throws off parent control in response to a growing independence, times of crisis in the life of the home, occasions of clashes with teachers, the dawning of vital interest between the sexes, first episodes of an anti-social nature, times of unusual temptation to wrongdoing, etc. The counseling program of the school should not be developed to meet one type of emergency to the neglect of others of equal importance. These crucial points in the character growth of the child should be points of concern to the guidance staff and the program should be so planned that it will focus upon all points of great need.

CHAPTER XVII

THE TEACHER AS COUNSELOR

At the center of the counseling program of the school is the classroom teacher. This has always been true, and present-day interest in professional counselors does not mean that the responsibility of the teacher is to be reduced. The current movement for scientific child guidance has tended to give an increased appreciation for the teacher and for the influence he can exert in the life of the child. This movement has also made it possible for him to be more effective as counselor because of the understanding of the causes and cures for maladjustments that it has brought. In the pages that follow it will be possible to give a very brief review of some of these principles and methods of child guidance that may be helpful to the teacher and to suggest opportunities for further study on the part of the teacher.

THE CASE-STUDY METHOD

A boy, fourteen years of age, sat at the breakfast table one morning with his ten-year-old niece. The cream pitcher was empty and he asked his niece to refill it. She refused to do so and there followed a quarrel such as might occur in any household. After breakfast, the boy walked to the corner of the room, picked up a rifle that stood there, and with the words "I'll teach you to get the cream for me!" shot the girl. Fortunately the girl was not seriously injured and the recovery was rapid. The boy was taken in hand by juvenile court authorities and referred to the court psychologist for examination. Was this boy to be classed as a dangerous criminal and guarded throughout his life or was there a more hopeful inter-

pretation for his actions? Undoubtedly he was guilty of shooting the girl, but the psychologist was concerned with the question: Why did he shoot her? Was he the victim of an uncontrollable temper? Was there some basis for great antipathy toward the niece? Was he mentally incapable of foreseeing the results of his act? Was it possible that he had picked up the gun in a semi-joking mood and that it had been discharged unintentionally? The answer to these questions would be the clue to the boy's behavior and would suggest the best way to handle the case.

This case illustrates a new attitude that is being taken in the diagnosis of conduct difficulties. The *Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers* says:

A deed of misconduct is often only the symptom of an underlying difficulty. When a child has a high fever we do not immediately seek to drive away this symptom, but attempt to find the physical maladjustment which is causing the abnormal temperature. The same symptom may result from a variety of causes and the exact cause should be determined before treatment is begun. The same is true with the behavior problems of children.¹

Another publication refers to the behavior of children as "a symptomatic response to the needs and strivings induced in the individual as a result of life-experience."² Still another writing says:

What problem is the individual trying to solve through this specific behavior, what value does it have for him, what effect does a particular environmental pressure have in releasing or inhibiting the individual's desires, his strivings, his purposes—these are the questions which this psychiatric psychology brings to the analysis of an individual's behavior and history.³

¹ P. 145.

² Marion E. Kenworthy, "Psychoanalytic Concepts in Mental Hygiene," *The Family*, VII (November, 1929), 213-23.

³ Virginia P. Robinson, *A Changing Psychology in Social Case Work* (Chapel Hill, N.C.: University of North Carolina Press, 1930), p. 86.

Upon this basis the teacher, or anyone who seeks to diagnose the problems of children, must search in the experience of the child for the basic problem which has led to the outward symptom. The physician must search for the particular cause among the multitude of possible causes of hay fever or of eczema, or any other symptom of physical ailment. The environmental influences, the motives, conflicts, disappointments, fears, and desires of the individual must be investigated in order to discover the destructive influences which are affecting his personality. The treatment then becomes a treatment of causes and not a treatment of symptoms.

The case study is the method by which the underlying causes are uncovered. It is an investigation of the relationships of the child to other individuals in his environment, the aim of which is to find the underlying problem that causes the patient to act in a particular way. It is an analysis of the interaction of the various individuals concerned, of their emotional needs, their aims, and motives. Because these interactions are many, the case study becomes a very lengthy one. Much of the necessary information can only be gathered as the confidence of child, parents, and other related individuals is secured. It is not something that the teacher can do all at once when a problem arises. She may start it then and add to her knowledge from time to time as she attempts to secure an adjustment of the child's difficulties. It may take many months to prepare the case study.

The reader will be familiar with the case-study outlines⁴ used for the investigation of the physical and mental life of the child; the effective factors in his home, school, and neighbor-

⁴ The reader is referred to the following sources for case-study outlines: Clark, M. A., *Recording and Reporting for Child Guidance Clinics* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, Bureau of Publications, 1930), 151 pages.

[Footnote continued on opposite page]

hood; and his interactions with persons in all the realms of his experience. Much of the information asked for in these outlines will already be known to the teacher, but the remaining information may be difficult to secure. The average classroom teacher should first consult all available school records and any members of the school staff who can suggest the "sore spots" in the life of the child. Then the teacher, if he has not found a clue to the problem, must start the exploration of other areas of the pupil's experience in search for the conflicts that are there.

The case study is more than a mere gathering of facts that will be the basis for diagnosis. It is during the process of gathering information that the teacher is able to establish a relationship to the child that is conducive to personal growth. Lawson Lowrey says:

Whatever effects are achieved in direct contact with the child are in direct proportion to the emotional rapport between the psychiatrist and the individual. This emotional rapport has been called by the psychoanalyst "the transfer." What it seems to

Culbert, J. F., *The Visiting Teacher at Work* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, Bureau of Publications, 1929), 235 pages.

Department of Classroom Teachers, National Education Association, *Seventh Yearbook*, pp. 139-43.

Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, *Tenth Yearbook*, pp. 269-75.

Lee, Porter R., and Kenworthy, Marion E., *Mental Hygiene and Social Work* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, Bureau of Publications, 1929), pp. 290-309.

Mink, Myrtle S., and Adler, Herman M., *Suggested Outline for History Taking in Cases of Behavior Disorders in Children* (Springfield, Ill.: State Department of Public Welfare, 1926), 21 pages.

Sayles, M. B., *Three Problem Children* (New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency [now Commonwealth Fund], 1924), 146 pages.

Watson, Maude E., *Children and Their Parents* (New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1932), 362 pages.

amount to in the case of children is something like this: The therapist becomes a kind of ideal or the repository of ideals which the child hopes to reach. From the emotional standpoint the child's satisfaction is achieved by inducing emotional responses in this individual (father or mother substitute).⁵

Virginia Robinson⁶ suggests that the gathering of history must proceed step by step as the relationship with the patient makes it possible. To go too deeply into the history at first may be considered as an intrusion and develop a feeling on the part of the child which will prevent effective treatment. There is value in the child sharing his own experiences and problems voluntarily, but a danger if information is secured without the desire of the child to have it given.

It is fairly general practice now in good case work agencies not to see any informants without the understanding and consent of the clients provided of course we are working with clients who are intelligent enough to give or withhold consent. Even where significant information might be thought to be in the hands of a relative for instance the worker will wait to get this information until the client accepts this as a part of treatment. That information is worthless if the "contact" is spoiled in the process of securing it, is a tenet of case work teaching.⁷

The teacher's interest in dealing with the child is to secure a picture of his patterns of thought, the way he lives with other people, and how he feels about these relationships. From this point the teacher can lead his patient toward an understanding of the factors in his own experience that are causing conflicts. The history-taking process becomes a co-operative one in which the child comes to an understanding of the causes

⁵ Lawson Lowrey, "Psychiatric Methods and Techniques for Meeting Mental Hygiene Problems in Children of Pre-school Age," *Mental Hygiene*, XIII (July, 1929), 480.

⁶ Robinson, Virginia P., *op. cit.*, chap. xiii, "History Taking and Relationship," pp. 138-50.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 140.

for conflicts in his life and is prepared for a better adjustment. In this co-operative approach the child begins to feel responsibility for his own conduct, thinks less of the teacher as one who is apart from himself in ideals and standards of life, and gains confidence in his ability to meet life in more satisfying ways.⁸

⁸ For discussions of the methods of making case studies the reader is referred to:

Robinson, Virginia P., *A Changing Psychology in Social Case Work* (Chapel Hill, N.C.: University of North Carolina Press, 1930), 204 pages.

Lee, Porter R., and Others, *Mental Hygiene and Social Work* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, Bureau of Publications, 1929), 309 pages.

Interviews (Studies in the Practice of Social Work, No. 1) (New York: American Association of Social Workers, 1928-29).

Social Case Work Generic and Specific (Studies in the Practice of Social Work, No. 2) (New York: American Association of Social Workers, 1929).

Sheffield, Ada E., *The Social Case History* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1920), 227 pages.

Richmond, Mary E., *What Is Social Case Work?* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1922), 268 pages.

De Schweinitz, Karl, *Art of Helping People Out of Trouble* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924), 231 pages.

Collections of case-study reports will be found in the following:

Healy, William, and Bronner, A. F., *Case Studies* (Boston: Judge Baker Foundation, 1922).

Mateer, Florence, *Just Normal Children* (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929), 294 pages.

Ralph, Georgia, *Case Studies* (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1923).

Reavis, W. C., *Pupil Adjustment in Junior and Senior High Schools* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1926), 348 pages.

Sapir, Jean, "A Morning in the Clinic," reprinted from *Welfare Magazine* (Springfield, Ill.: State Department of Public Welfare, 1928), 14 pages.

Sayles, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, Bureau of Publications, 1928), 342 pages.

[Footnote continued on following page]

PRINCIPLES OF CHILD GUIDANCE

There is a lack of uniformity in the methods of treatment suggested for the maladjustments of children. It is impossible to set up a list of general principles of guidance which would be acceptable to all of the specialists in the field. The two recent yearbooks of the National Education Association which have dealt with methods of character education have included lists of principles which are rather widely accepted among guidance specialists. These lists of principles have been arranged in Table III in parallel columns so that the two may be compared by the reader. The *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Classroom Teachers devotes pages 144-54 to a discussion of these principles together with illustrations of their application and quotations from authoritative sources.

METHODS OF TREATMENT FOR PROBLEMS OF CONDUCT

The application of child-guidance principles to a specific problem is not easy. During the past few years many volumes have been written about the problems of children and methods of treatment. Some of these volumes are very technical and prepared for the use of specialists but others have been written for the teacher. Included among the Appendixes the reader will find a list of references from these sources, covering many of the most common forms of maladjustment of elementary- and secondary-school children. A survey of as many of these

Sayles, M. B., *The Problem Child in School* (New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency [now Commonwealth Fund], 1925), 287 pages.

Sayles, M. B., *Three Problem Children* (New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency [now Commonwealth Fund], 1924), 146 pages.

Van Waters, Miriam, *Youth in Conflict* (New York: Republic Publishing Co. [now New Republic, Inc.], 1925), 293 pages.

Watson, M. E., *Children and Their Parents* (New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1932), 362 pages.

TABLE III

Principles Listed in the <i>Tenth Yearbook</i> of the Department of Superintendence*	Principles Listed in the <i>Seventh Yearbook</i> of the Department of Classroom Teachers†
Avoid treating symptoms. Try to find out why the child acts as he does, and then fit the treatment to the cause of the difficulty	A deed of misconduct is often only the symptom of an underlying difficulty The understanding of the origin of a maladjustment often suggests the proper treatment
Single experiences do not afford ground for generalization. Vivid incidents are particularly to be distrusted. Habitual and recurring behavior is the significant source of data	
The best attitude is one of cheerful, thoughtful objectivity, avoiding pronounced sympathizing, condemnation, or an air of easy optimism or slap-'em-on-the-back	Pupils are not often aided by teachers who do not have control of their own emotions at the time guidance is offered Maladjusted pupils are not often helped by maladjusted teachers. . . . Children are inspired by a wholesome, integrated personality but are repulsed by the confused, the domineering, or the fearful teacher who allows his own emotions, his fears, his desire for self-assertion, or his hunger for affection to dominate his feelings with them
	The intelligence factor is important in determining the best form of guidance for the child, but it is not the only factor. . . . Many children of low mentality are not marked by a low standard of moral life. It is true that low mentality means that the child is less able to see clearly the results

* Pp. 251-52.

† Pp. 144-54.

TABLE III—*Continued*

Principles Listed in the <i>Tenth Yearbook</i> of the Department of Superintendence*	Principles Listed in the <i>Seventh Yearbook</i> of the Department of Classroom Teachers†
	<p>of his acts, and that for this reason he is more likely to make errors of moral judgment. It is also true that, on the average, the child of low mentality is less able to exercise self-control at times when there are incentives or impulses to anti-social behavior. These characteristics make the problem of the teacher in dealing with the subnormal child somewhat greater than that of handling other children, but they surely do not justify an attitude of despair. In dealing with subnormal children, authority must often be substituted for self-guidance. . . . In many ways they must be treated like very young children because physical maturity does not bring them maturity of judgment and social consciousness</p>
<p>The child with extreme withdrawing, recessive characteristics is as much a problem in need of individual help as is the child with extreme aggressive characteristics. Too great shyness may mean more potential trouble than too great forwardness</p>	
<p>Utilize all readily accessible data, such as those relating to health, school progress, and home conditions. Cumulative pupil records already available in most schools furnish a large amount of valuable information</p>	
<p>It is sometimes necessary to study other persons than the one immediately involved. A problem</p>	<p>Home co-operation is essential for the complete adjustment of the child. . . . Because so many hab-</p>

* Pp. 251-52.

† Pp. 144-54.

TABLE III—*Continued*

Principles Listed in the <i>Tenth Yearbook</i> of the Department of Superintendence*	Principles Listed in the <i>Seventh Yearbook</i> of the Department of Classroom Teachers†
child means at least one and probably two problem parents	its of thought and action are set before the child ever comes to the school, the teacher must go back into the home to find the basic cause for a large proportion of the problems of his pupils. It is no less important to have contact with the home when the treatment of the maladjusted child begins. Even the most skilful teacher can hardly expect to succeed with the child without the co-operation of the parents
Remember the whole child. While you work for one character objective, take care lest you get undesirable by-products in other character objectives	
In some cases, the counselee should be kept informed of the purpose of the counselor, and should be appealed to consciously to aid in solving the problem. In other cases the counselee may be kept in partial or complete ignorance of the changes desired in him. The counselor should use whichever plan seems appropriate in any particular case‡.	
Do not offer authoritative explanations. By the use of other cases and of questions, build up in the counselee his own reasonable interpretation of his behavior	The co-operation of the child must be secured if success in the reconstruction process is to be attained Good conduct must be made attractive to the child
Do not give advice. Give the experience of yourself and others so far as it is useful, taking par-	Guidance should lead to greater independence and self-guidance rather than to greater dependence

* Pp. 251-52.

† Pp. 144-54.

‡ The reader is referred to the preceding section of this chapter for the author's discussion of this principle of guidance.

TABLE III—*Continued*

Principles Listed in the <i>Tenth Yearbook</i> of the Department of Superintendence*	Principles Listed in the <i>Seventh Yearbook</i> of the Department of Classroom Teachers†
ticular care to emphasize the differences in the situation faced by the counselee. No two persons have faced exactly the same situation. What the counselee needs is ability to handle situations himself, not advice to follow	upon the will of adults
Expect patterns. Among the more common are dependence, fear of the new, avoidance of people, breakdowns, running away from a situation, projecting the blame onto an individual of a given type, and . . . making a mountain out of a given molehill	
Emphasize success rather than failure. Seek to arrange situations which will give the child a taste of success	The child should be kept courageous as he faces the future. He should never be allowed to feel that his life is "bad" and incapable of improvement
It is seldom possible to depend exclusively upon the readjustment of the persons and objects in the environment, or upon the new insight and attitude of the person being advised. Both are usually in need of some readjustment	
	Many problems are solved by setting up substitute forms of behavior
Avoid letting the plans focus on too distant goals without adequate attention to immediate steps. Help the counselee plan on improving adjustment this week, not console himself with	

* Pp. 251-52.

† Pp. 144-54.

TABLE III—*Continued*

Principles Listed in the <i>Tenth Yearbook</i> of the Department of Superintendence*	Principles Listed in the <i>Seventh Yearbook</i> of the Department of Classroom Teachers†
fantasy. The past and future exist to enrich the present	
Keep confidences inviolate	<p>If the teacher centers his effort upon proving a child guilty of misconduct he may develop a fatal antagonism upon the part of the pupil, or may break down the pupil's self-respect and thus reduce the possibilities of helping him</p> <p>The teacher should avoid calling to the attention of other pupils the failures of the individual unless benefit is to be derived from group interest</p>
	The teacher is most effective as a counselor and guide in essential matters if he is not over-concerned with trivialities
Learn to identify early the cases which require a specialist, and be willing to refer them to him	

* Pp. 251-52.

† Pp. 144-54.

volumes as are available will be of greater value to the teacher than any discussion of method that could be presented here. The teacher with a few of these volumes on her shelf will find it easy to turn to them for assistance when a problem arises. It will, perhaps, be of greater value to develop the habit of turning to pertinent references when problems arise than to spend the same amount of time reading volumes from cover to cover.

The list of references has been selected from among those which have been found helpful to teachers, but all the volumes are not of equal value. The child-guidance movement is

still developing rapidly and there is much uncertainty and disagreement among the best authorities. It will be obvious that the various authors do not always agree as to the proper method of handling a given type of case. Various schools of thought and methods of treatment are represented. It is hoped, as problems arise, that teachers will be stimulated to supplement their present knowledge of child psychology by seeking the advice of a variety of specialists. It is not wise to limit one's reading to a single volume or to the writings of a single author. If the teacher becomes acquainted with conflicting theories and methods it will be possible to compare the various methods recommended for the treatment of each type of case, and to profit from the best of the techniques of psychology.

From all that has been said above there may be outlined a series of steps to be followed by the teacher when a maladjustment comes to his attention. When a teacher meets a difficult case he tries to handle it himself with any available assistance. It is possible that after securing available information about the child and his background, after looking up records of the child's school experience, talking with faculty members, and a visit to the home, the diagnosis may be easy and the teacher may be fully prepared to guide the boy or girl. If the case is more complex, he may wish to seek advice from two or three books on psychology. At this point a usable bibliography and the library are indispensable. The time devoted to reading and to his own investigation of the pupil's case may prepare the teacher to handle the case effectively. If not, he is ready to seek the aid of more specialized workers—the school adviser, the consulting specialist, or the clinical staff. Perhaps this staff may not find diagnosis and treatment very complex and may be able to refer the case back to the teacher for treatment. At other times a long period of treatment by the specialized staff may be necessary. In such instances the teach-

er's duties are chiefly to co-operate by following the suggestions made by the counseling staff.

The case of Herbert, a tenth-grade English student, came to the teacher's attention very early in the semester. He came to class day after day without having done assigned work and never missed an opportunity to advertise to the class that he never had been able to "get English" and never would be able to do so. The teacher was assured almost from the first that he was sincere in his feeling of inability and that his braggadocio was a covering for his true feelings. The teacher had several conferences with the boy during which she tried to win his friendship and to discover the cause of his discouragement. At the same time, she was observing his reactions in class and on a few occasions saw evidence that he was not lacking in ability to master the course. Records from the school files of his success on a group intelligence and achievement tests confirmed her observations. It was almost a month after the beginning of the semester when the teacher went to the boy with a plan. She explained to him that she had seen some evidence that had convinced her that with a little help he could become at least an average student. He was convinced that she was overrating his ability but finally agreed to her suggestion that he spend time after school in her room, studying his lesson and asking for help as it was needed. At least half of the evenings from that time until the middle of the semester were spent in the study of English. When mid-term examinations were given this boy made a high-average grade, and with pride carried home a passing grade on his card. The teacher then told him that she would no longer be able to devote such a large share of her time to his case, now that he had made a good start on the work. The boy was free to come to her for help but there was no urging and no comment when he did not come to class with assignments prepared. For three or four weeks he did little outside

of class, although his attitude in class was much improved. Then he began to take responsibility for his own work and to come prepared for class. On the day of the final examination he asked if he might study in the teacher's room during lunch hour so that he would be better prepared for the examination at one o'clock. The teacher investigated and found out that the boy went without his lunch, except for a piece of candy, in order that he might have the maximum time to prepare for the test. The teacher, by gaining the confidence of the boy, and by careful observation, had been able to co-operate with him in working out a problem of long standing.

Julia was a beautiful little girl in the fourth grade, one year advanced beyond the average in school grade, and with an I.Q. of 124. With no apparent reason she started to steal books, crayons, notebooks, and other objects from her teacher and fellow-pupils. The teacher was distressed and could find no explanation. She borrowed some books on child guidance and started reading about the causes of stealing, but could find no clue. She consulted the principal and the girl's former teachers, and decided to visit the mother. She found a home which was superior to the average in the neighborhood. The mother had never known Julia to steal and could give no hint as to the reason. As her next step, the teacher consulted the psychologist who served the school system and he started an investigation. After no little effort the underlying problem came to the surface. There had been a misunderstanding between the girl and the teacher, long since forgotten by the teacher but not by the pupil. Julia's stealing was her way to retaliate. The situation was explained to the teacher and a plan outlined whereby she could build a new friendship. It was done through the medium of books. Two or three new story books were sent to the teacher. The teacher in turn asked Julia if she would read the new books and give her judg-

ment as to their value. Julia liked books and responded to the overtures of friendship, and the stealing was at an end.

Such cases could be multiplied endlessly to show how the teacher may draw upon her own knowledge of the case and of child psychology, then upon the advice or the written suggestions of others, and finally turn to the specialist to give help with the more difficult cases.

METHODS BY WHICH THE TEACHER MAY INCREASE
HIS KNOWLEDGE OF CHILD PSYCHOLOGY AND
METHODS OF GUIDANCE

As one looks over a group of publications in the field of child guidance he is impressed with the fact that the majority of these volumes have appeared in a short span of years. Many teachers and principals secured their professional training before this movement had touched the curriculum of teachers' colleges and normal schools, and find themselves very unfamiliar with the recent contributions to psychology. If they can get back into college for summer terms or for the winter session, they will find valuable courses in this field. If this is not possible the teacher can outline for himself a plan of study and of new experiences which will be valuable and interesting. It is even more worth while if a group of teachers or the entire staff of a building or school system join together in a program of study. The report of some of the plans that have been used in various schools and communities may be suggestive.

Conferences under Expert Leadership

A Community Institute on Character Education was first held in Kenosha, Wisconsin, in 1931. This program was sponsored by the Young Men's Christian Association in co-operation with the public schools, Parent-Teacher Association, and other interested groups in the city. On six consecutive Wed-

nesday nights those who registered for the programs met for a lecture, open forum, and special discussion groups for parents, teachers, supervisors, church leaders, and group leaders. The list of topics and lecturers was as follows:

- "Everyday Problems of Everyday Persons," by F. C. Rosecrance
life advisement director, Public Schools, Milwaukee.
- "An Experimental Approach to Behavior Guidance," by Dr. Paul
L. Schroeder, director, Institute of Juvenile Research of Illinois,
Chicago.
- "What Constitutes an Adequate Study of a Person?" by Dr. Hedley
S. Dimock, professor of education, Y.M.C.A. College, Chicago.
- "Personality Testing and Behavior Guidance," by Dr. David E.
Sonquist, educational supervisor, Metropolitan Y.M.C.A.,
Chicago.
- "Environmental Factors in Personality Adjustment," by Professor
Kimball Young, department of sociology and anthropology,
University of Wisconsin.
- "What Science Offers on Character Education," by Charles E.
Hendry, director of personnel and research, Y.M.C.A., Kenosha.

Between the weekly meetings each participant in the institute was directed in the making of certain case studies, in making observations of the behavior of children, and in the use of case-study outlines and simple test forms. The findings on this work were made the basis for discussion in the five discussion groups. Although the enrolment was limited to one hundred and fifty, the institute was so organized that it stimulated interest among various significant groups in the community.

Often a single specialist can be brought to a community to conduct group discussions, give lectures, and consult with teachers and others interested in child guidance. The Children's Fund of Michigan was responsible for the visit of Dr. Alfred Adler of Vienna to Michigan in 1930, when he conducted open clinics and gave several series of lectures. This

same plan has been followed in many localities with other leadership.

College Courses at Home

There are extension course and home-study or correspondence courses offered by some of our larger universities.

Group Discussion under Local Leadership

If it is not possible for teachers to study under the leadership of specialists, they can learn much by meeting together for the discussion of their problems, or for the review of books and periodical articles. In chapter vi of this volume there is a report of such a series of discussions.

Circulating Library

A library with several of the best books and periodicals, which is easily accessible to teachers, will encourage reading and make it easier for the teacher to get helpful advice when he needs it. If there are not available funds for such a library in the school, a small contribution by each one of a group of teachers will purchase several volumes. Parent-Teacher Associations are often willing to contribute to such a library, particularly if the books are made available to parents as well as to teachers. City libraries and state libraries will usually have some of the books or be willing to order them if recommendations are made by the teachers.

This and other chapters have suggested volumes that might be included in such a library. Such periodicals as *Mental Hygiene*, *Child Study*, *Parents' Magazine*, and occasional articles in almost any of the educational magazines are valuable aids to those who wish to know more of child psychology and guidance. In some of the special fields of guidance there are periodicals such as the *Vocational Guidance Magazine* and the *Personnel Journal*.

Teacher as Research Worker

The teacher learns much by research methods. Home visitations are not unusual, but if the teacher goes to the home with a definite plan as to what he wishes to discover about the home, he will gradually accumulate essential information about homes in the community. The teacher may secure a picture of the varying degrees of interest in the school on the part of parents, the educational background of the home, the feelings of parents toward the disciplining of children, the extent to which parents are reading current literature on child training, etc. It is not meant that the teacher should go to the home with a questionnaire and other research instruments, but that he should be observing of particular things as they come out in the course of the conversation. Usually the teacher determines the trend of conversation and finds it difficult at times to know what to talk about. He can often start a trend of conversation that will give him valuable information with such a question as: "We often wonder how long a boy should go to school—Do you think every boy should go to college?" "What did you enjoy the most when you were in school, Mrs. Jones?" "Do you think children are better than they used to be or not so wholesome?" "Do you read any of the magazines on child care that are now available?"

Many aspects of the influences in the community are not usually known to teachers unless they are interested in gathering information about the community environment. Sociological surveys of the type of homes in the community, of the opportunities for recreation, and of the commercial amusements, libraries, churches, etc., are often suggestive. Once again, this does not mean a formal survey but that the teacher have some systematic plan for gathering significant data about the neighborhood. Much can be learned from observation and from conversation with prominent citizens and public officials.

The pupil is another key to an understanding of community life. Teachers learn much from surveys of how children use their leisure hours, the number of commercial recreations in which they participate, their favorite magazines, etc.—much about the children and much about the community as well.

The making of case studies is in itself a valuable educational experience for the teacher. Among other things which Superintendent Chewning has done in Evansville, Indiana, schools to stimulate interest in character education has been to encourage teachers to make and report the diagnosis and treatment of at least one case during the year. The making of such case studies is one of the standards for all “one hundred per cent teachers” in high school and elementary school. Almost two hundred of these studies are included in the bulletin of those turned in during the school year 1930-31.⁹ The teachers in other systems have found it equally valuable to make a thorough study of one or more cases.

Reference was made in the preceding chapter to the many tests, questionnaires, and rating scales that have been developed recently for the measurement of conduct, ethical knowledge, and attitudes. These instruments are in many instances not very reliable as absolute measures of personal characteristics, especially if only one or a few are used. Their use does have value in giving the teacher a general understanding of his pupils and can safely be used in this manner. If the teacher discovers that a fourth of his pupils are dishonest in a given test situation it will be a valuable discovery even if in a few instances the results for individual pupils may not

⁹ Evansville, Public Schools, Evansville, Indiana. Two mimeographed bulletins: “Mental Hygiene Case Studies, Reported for the School Year 1930-1931 by All One Hundred Per Cent Teachers in High Schools” and “Mental Hygiene Case Studies, Reported for the School Year 1930-1931 by All One Hundred Per Cent Teachers in Elementary Schools.”

have been representative. Lists of these tests and instruments will be found in the volumes mentioned on page 298.

The teachers, principals, and supervisors in the Pontiac (Michigan) schools co-operated in the study of approximately a thousand children of a single grade, and used the findings as a basis for discussion in teachers' meetings. The investigation was carried on in the first semester of the fifth grade for three consecutive semesters. Various tests and questionnaires were used to discover the educational progress and mental capacity of each pupil, the home background, the recreational interests, the ambitions and wishes of the child, the popularity of the child among playmates, the prejudices against children of other racial and social groups, deception on examinations, etc. Following each step in the investigation the results were tabulated, a report sent to every elementary teacher, suggestions sent to the fifth-grade teachers for discussions and other follow-up work in the room, a group conference held with the teachers in each building to consider the implications of the findings for the teacher, and a record made of certain information regarding the individual pupil which might be of future value. A similar stimulus to the interest of teachers resulted from the giving of the Cardinal Objective Test to Detroit children, and from a series of case studies made in the Chapman School, Chicago, under the auspices of the Institute for Juvenile Research.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE SPECIALIST AS COUNSELOR

The best of teachers, regardless of their skill in assisting children with their maladjustments, reach the point where they feel the need for greater knowledge and skill in pupil guidance. At that point where teachers reach the limit of their ability the specialist enters in to supplement their efforts. Teachers sometimes have a mistaken notion of the functions of the specialist and expect to be relieved of all responsibility for the individual needs of children when specialized service is available. Such cannot be the case. In the first place, there are not enough specialized workers in the field to care for all the individual needs of children even if the schools could afford to pay them. Furthermore, the teacher holds a place in the life of the child that makes it well that he take his share of the responsibility for child guidance. The specialist must come in as a helper to the teacher, and the needs of the class can best be served if there is co-operation between the two.

Several factors may lead the teacher to feel a need for aid. In some instances the teacher must seek the aid of professional counselors because of the lack of sufficient time to devote to an individual case. He might be capable of giving the necessary guidance if he could devote two or three hours every week to the boy, could make necessary home calls, etc. With the needs of an entire class to be ministered to, however, the time he can devote to a single child is limited. In other instances, the teacher needs the aid of the specialist because he has tried but been unable to determine the cause of a difficulty. Often this teacher is successful in handling his case after the diagnosis is made. Other maladjustments have their origin in an organic

defect and can only be cured by medical service. The teacher is baffled by the child's condition and unable to help the child because he needs the care of a physician and hospitalization. Still another child may have no organic defect, but does need the treatment of psychiatrist or psychologist over a long period of time. There may be conflicts so deeply rooted in his emotional life that adjustment can best be secured by the method of psychoanalysis, or there may be environmental causes which are beyond the control of the teacher. In each of these cases the teacher turns to the guidance expert as he would turn to the physician when there is fear of a contagious disease, or as the family physician, when there is a very serious case, turns to the dermatologist, pediatrician, or other medical specialist.

A list of the difficulties of pupils who are referred to counselors, even those referred to the more skilled workers such as psychiatrist and psychologist, is not very different from the list of problems which come to the attention of the average teacher. A recent statistical study of cases referred to one of the leading child-guidance clinics places at the top of its list such problems as restlessness, irritable temperament, disobedience, stubbornness, retardation in school, temper display, stealing, childish manner, fighting, and other equally common forms of maladjustments.¹ All these types are met regularly by the teacher and are met successfully. At times, however, such do not yield to treatment unless the treatment is more expertly directed.

TYPES OF SPECIALISTS

One is sometimes confused by the variety of new professions that have arisen in relation to the child-guidance movement. "Visiting teachers," "deans of boys," "psychiatrists," "psy-

¹ From a study of 5,000 cases referred to the Institute of Juvenile Research, Chicago (Luton Ackerson, *Children's Behavior Problems* [Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931], 268 pages).

chologists," "educational counselors"—who are these workers and what is their relationship one to another? The confusion as to the functions of these workers is due in part to the comparative newness of the movement and of the new professions, and due in part to an overlapping of their types of service. The trend is toward what may be called all-around training for these workers. The psychiatrist was originally trained to care for the mentally diseased but now handles almost any type of maladjustment. The psychologist is often familiar with mental diseases and emotional disturbances of all types, and does not limit himself to mental testing and educational diagnosis. Visiting teachers, psychiatric social workers, and others who have specialized in case work are often familiar with the techniques of the psychologist and psychiatrist and able to guide many types of children toward adjustment. There is in actual practice, therefore, a lack of clear distinction between the abilities and functions of various workers in the field. This is to be expected in view of the fact that the personality of the child cannot be segmented, but it does make it difficult to give clear-cut recommendations as to the personnel for counseling service. It depends upon the native ability and training of the persons available. To label them counselors, psychologists, psychiatrists, etc., does not assure the school that it will receive the type of service that is needed. The administrator must build his counseling staff on the basis of a thorough knowledge of the ability and training of each member of the staff.

In the paragraphs that follow, a brief discussion of the functions of each type of worker will be presented together with references for further reading.

Psychiatrist

The psychiatrist is a physician who has specialized in mental diseases. He receives the regular course of training in

medicine, then takes specialized work in mental diseases, mental hygiene, and the adjustment of personality disorders of both organic and functional origin. The psychiatrist's interview with a child is the method by which he discovers the attitudes and motives of the child, the experiences which may have caused his maladjustments, and any peculiarities of his mental functions. The next step is to help the child understand his own behavior and enlist his co-operation in the re-education process. Often the contact of the psychiatrist with a child requires many hours of time over several weeks or months before his plan of treatment proves effective. Usually the psychiatrist works in co-operation with psychiatric social workers who are able to select the cases that need his attention and to co-operate in the diagnosis and treatment.²

Psychologist

The psychologist is particularly interested in the mental abilities and educational development of the child but in actual practice is concerning himself with problems of emotional life and social maladjustments. Psychologists are trained particularly in the testing of intelligence and educational achievement, in the psychology of the learning process and of educational difficulties, in the education of exceptional children, and in other related fields. Usually the school psychologist spends much of his time testing and interpreting his findings, and recommends the type of treatment needed by the child. After his recommendations are made, the child is given special tutoring, his course is readjusted, he is assigned to a special class, or he

² The teacher will be interested in the following references on the work of the psychiatrist:

Psychiatric Examination of a Child (New York: National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1926), 7 pages.

Files of the magazine, *Mental Hygiene*.

has other adjustments made by the teacher or principal in harmony with the psychological investigation.³

Visiting Teacher, Psychiatric Social Workers, and Other Case Workers

Increasing emphasis is being given to the social worker as an agent for the handling of conduct problems. Formerly the social worker was assigned the duty of visiting the home and community to gather information about the child. After a psychiatrist or psychologist had diagnosed the case this case worker was sent to the home to relay the suggestions which had come from the diagnosis, or was assigned other duties related to the treatment of the case. It has been found necessary to relate more closely the program of diagnosis and treatment. It has also been discovered that the social worker, when given a general training in psychology and mental hygiene, can

³ The following references on the work of the psychologist will be found helpful:

Brouner, Augusta F., and Others, *Manual of Individual Mental Tests and Testing* (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1927), 287 pages.

Hildreth, Gertrude H., *Psychological Service for School Problems* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1930), 317 pages.

Hull, Clark L., *Aptitude Testing* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1928), 536 pages.

Pintner, Rudolf, *Intelligence Testing: Methods and Results* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1931), 555 pages.

Scheidemann, Norma V., *The Psychology of Exceptional Children* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931), 520 pages.

Terman, Lewis M., *The Measurement of Intelligence* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916), 362 pages.

Wallin, John E. W., *Clinical and Abnormal Psychology* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927), 649 pages.

Watson, Goodwin, and Spence, R. B., *Educational Problems for Psychological Study* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1930), 352 pages.

Wells, F. L., *Mental Test in Clinical Practice* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1930), 317 pages.

handle more cases without the aid of psychologist or psychiatrist. The case worker with such training can take responsibility for a maladjusted child and consult the psychiatrist and psychologist if it is found necessary. The standards of preparation are not fixed. A psychiatric social worker is expected to have college training and two years of professional training.

These workers were introduced as a part of the personnel of the child-guidance clinic but often work independently in the school. The visiting-teacher movement has grown up somewhat apart from the psychiatric social worker, but with similar training requirements. The term "visiting teacher" is applied to the case worker in the schools. Usually the position is held by an experienced teacher who has had training in the methods of case work and psychology and is able to handle problems of educational adjustment, personality defects, and problems of adjustment to home and community. Since there is such a lack of uniformity in the requirements for these positions, the service that can be expected of the case worker will be determined by the amount and type of training and experience of each.⁴

⁴ The following references on the psychiatric social worker and the visiting teacher are suggested:

Culbert, Jane F., *The Visiting Teacher at Work* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1929), 235 pages.

Ellis, Mabel B., *The Visiting Teacher in Rochester* (New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency [now Commonwealth Fund], 1925), 205 pages.

Lee, Porter R., and Others, *Mental Hygiene and Social Work* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1929), 309 pages.

Nudd, Howard W., *The Purpose and Scope of Visiting Teacher Work* (in Sayles, Mary B., *The Problem Child in School*) (New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency [now Commonwealth Fund], 1925), 287 pages. Also published separately by the Joint Committee.

Robinson, Virginia P., *A Changing Psychology in Social Case Work* (Chapel Hill, N.C.: University of North Carolina Press, 1930), 204 pages.

Educational and Vocational Counselors

Usually the vocational and educational counselor in the school is responsible for the giving of group and individual guidance on the choice of a vocation, the requirements of the vocations, the planning of educational programs, the selection of schools, and, in some instances, is responsible for the placement of students in work positions. Often much of the counselor's time is spent in making contacts with industry, studying the opportunities and requirements in local concerns, and preparing information which can be presented to students in classes and in individual interviews. If there is no dean or other personnel worker in the school, the counselor may be given other duties related to the guidance of students.

The counselor should be better trained than the average teacher. He must have the personal qualities and training which will prepare him for successful contacts with individual boys and girls. He should be acquainted with various occupational fields and, if possible, should have had some experience in industry. A knowledge of the techniques of research will be necessary if vocational surveys are to be made. A background in education, social science (economics, labor problems, etc.), and psychology, together with graduate study in the methods of vocational and educational guidance, is recommended.⁵

Deans of Boys and Girls

The dean is usually given general responsibility for the social welfare and personal development of students. He may have the duties of educational and vocational counselor, visit-

⁵ References on the educational and vocational counselor:

Edgerton, A. H., *Vocational Guidance and Counseling* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1926), 213 pages.

Flemming, Cecile W., *Pupil Adjustment in the Modern School* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931).

[Footnote continued on following page]

ing teacher, and other specialists mentioned above, if these workers are not included in the school system. He is usually responsible for individual conferences on problems of conduct and school failure; talks to groups on study habits, conduct, etiquette, etc.; supervision and chaperonage of social activities; sponsoring of extra-curriculum activities. The dean's duties are perhaps less uniform than those of any other type of counselor because he should be the one person to whom the pupil can go at any time with any problem.

The nature of the dean's duties will suggest that a very general training is desirable. There are courses offered for teachers who wish to prepare themselves for the work of the dean. They usually include preparation in educational guidance, mental hygiene and psychology, personal hygiene, extra-curriculum activities and their supervision, as well as general courses in teaching and school administration.⁶

Jones, Arthur J., *Principles of Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1930).

Myers, George E., *The Problem of Vocational Guidance* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1927), 311 pages.

National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-third Yearbook*, Part II, *Vocational Guidance and Vocational Education for the Industries* (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1924), 456 pages.

Proctor, William M., *Educational and Vocational Guidance* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925), 352 pages.

Reavis, William C., *Public Adjustment in Junior and Senior High Schools* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1926), 348 pages.

Files of the *Vocational Guidance Magazine*.

⁶ References on the dean of boys or girls:

Johnson, Mary H., *The Dean in the High School* (New York: Professional & Technical Press, 1929), 366 pages.

Jones, Jane L., *A Personnel Study of Women Deans in Colleges and Universities*, "Contributions to Education," No. 326 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), 155 pages.

[Footnote continued on opposite page]

Attendance Officer

The attendance officer may be only a "policeman" who attempts to force school attendance or he may be a very effective addition to the guidance program of a school. Some attendance officers have training in psychology and the methods of case work and try to discover the causes of truancy and to secure a better adjustment of the child to the school. Truancy is evidence of maladjustment of some kind and should be treated as such. The attendance officer can render great service if he is capable of diagnosis and treatment of the maladjustment, or if he co-operates with other counselors who can assist him with truancy cases.

The close contact of this officer with the home has qualified him for other types of service. The handling of truancy cases is for many attendance officers the minor part of his work. In one large system it constitutes only a tenth of the work of the department of attendance. The attendance officer often visits homes regarding problems of school administration which must be discussed with parents, he calls regarding working permits or tuition, he goes into the home when there is poverty or other home problems which he can relieve. He is the connecting link between the school and the home, clearing misunderstandings on the part of parents, carrying necessary

Merrill, Ruth A., and Bragdon, Helen D., *The Vocation of Dean* (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Deans of Women, 1926), 48 pages.

Sturtevant, Sarah M., and Hayes, Harriet, *Deans at Work* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1930), 295 pages.

Sturtevant, Sarah M., and Strang, Ruth, *A Personnel Study of Deans of Women in Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools*, "Contributions to Education," No. 393 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), 95 pages.

Yearbooks of the National Association of Deans of Women, Washington, D.C.

information about the school and its program, seeking home co-operation in the guidance of the child. At the same time his knowledge of home and community conditions makes him valuable to the school administrator who seeks to understand the local needs as they are related to the school program.

It is obvious that the attendance officer will vary in value to the school according to his ability and training. He should be selected with thought of the functions which he is expected to exercise.⁷

The Health Department as Related to Problems of Conduct

There should be a co-operative relationship between the school health department and the guidance agents of the school. Oftentimes physical factors are contributing to the maladjustment of a child and medical treatment is needed. Some personality defects are of definite organic origin and the child must be treated for epilepsy, venereal disease, glandular disorder, or the like.

The school nurse can be of great assistance to the counselor because of her contact with the homes of boys and girls. Often she will be familiar with the home background of children who are referred to the psychologist, the educational counselor, the attendance officer, or others, and be able to give helpful suggestions as to the cause of the trouble and to secure home co-operation in the re-education process.

⁷ References on the work of the attendance officer:

Detroit, Department of Attendance, Census and Employment Permits, *Reference and Procedure* (Detroit: Board of Education, 1929), 72 pages.

National League of Compulsory Education Officials, *Proceedings* of annual conventions.

New York, Bureau of Compulsory Education, School Census, and Child Welfare, *Manual of Instructions for Attendance Officers* (New York: Board of Education, 1927), 76 pages.

The Child-Guidance Clinic

The term "child-guidance clinic" is applied to an organization of several types of specialists for the guidance of boys and girls. The clinic staff usually consists of psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, and physicians. Sometimes the psychiatrist fulfils the functions of the physician although it is usually found better to leave the physical examination to a physician who does not have psychiatric training. The psychiatrist, psychologist, and social worker each have distinct contributions to make to the understanding of the child and are considered as indispensable members of the clinic staff. There are at the time of writing over two hundred clinics in the United States that provide the services of the three types of specialists.⁸

The most common plan of procedure in a clinic is illustrated by the following account of the experiences of an imaginary child:

James Adams has been referred to the clinic because of habitual truancy, lack of interest in school, and rebellion against parental authority. Before his arrival at the clinic a social worker, Miss Harrison, has gathered as much information as possible about the case. She visits the home, the school, and the leader of a boys' club to which James belongs. From these sources she secures the personal history of the case; information about the family background and the present home environment; the record of his school history and achievement; a report of his behavior in school, home and community, etc.

James has an appointment at the clinic for 9:00 o'clock Tuesday morning. A few minutes after his arrival he is taken to Dr. Jones, a physician, for a complete physical examination and for questioning about his health habits. The examination is long and tiring but

⁸ *Directory of Psychiatric Clinics for Children in the United States* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1932). The total number of completely staffed clinics in July, 1931, was 232.

there is time after it is completed for James to rest in the waiting room for a while before his next appointment. Dr. Henderson, psychologist, gives the Binet-Simon intelligence test and then arranges to see James a week later.

At the time of the second visit Dr. Henderson gives a test of educational achievement in an effort to further understand the reason for his poor school adjustment. By 10:30 he is ready to meet the psychiatrist, Dr. Elder, who tries to discover the attitudes and emotional experiences of the child that may be related to his conflicts in school and home. By noon James is ready to go home.

At three o'clock in the afternoon Miss Harrison and Drs. Jones, Henderson, and Elder come together for conference about the case. Each of the four specialists reviews the findings he has made, and together they discuss the form of treatment to be pursued. Miss Harrison is assigned the task of conferring with the child's principal and teacher in order to report results of the psychologists' tests and to suggest necessary modifications in school regimen. The major causes for maladjustment seem to lie in the home; so it is decided that the psychiatrist should have a conference with the boy's parents, to be followed by conferences at regular intervals until the parents shall be able to adjust their method for the guidance of the boy.

This description gives a brief outline of what might be the clinic's first contact with a child. The nature and extent of the future handling of the case would depend upon the results obtained in treatment.

The increased training of the psychiatric social worker is making possible another plan of organization of the clinic. A case may be assigned to the social worker who is to have major responsibility for it. This worker makes a preliminary investigation and if it seems necessary arranges for physical examination and mental tests. The social worker continues the investigation and treatment of the case and only refers it to the psychiatrist or asks for additional assistance from the physician or psychologist when and where it proves necessary.

On this basis the psychiatric social worker is the chief agent of the clinic and others serve only as consultants.⁹

LIMITATIONS OF THE SPECIALIST

The *Seventh Yearbook*¹⁰ of the Department of Classroom Teachers cautions the teacher regarding certain limitations of specialized child-guidance service. In the first place, the statement is made that specialists do not claim success in dealing with all types of maladjusted children. Reference is made to the check which was made by the Bureau of Children's Guidance in New York City of the success attained with a group of children. Complete success was attained in about half of the cases, partial success with slightly more than 30 per cent, and failure in from 10 to 20 per cent of the cases. They explain this failure as follows:

It is recognized by the staff that these failures were due in some measure to their own limitations, to the inevitable inadequacies in their work as human agents; and in some measure, also, to the limitations of our present knowledge of human personality and our present methods of dealing with its problems. . . . But this failure of the Bureau in a certain proportion of its cases we believe to be

⁹ For further discussion of the organization of the clinic the reader is referred to:

Lee, Porter R., and Others, *Mental Hygiene and Social Work* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1929), 309 pages.

Sapir, Jean, *A Morning in the Clinic* (Springfield, Ill.: State Department of Public Welfare, 1928), 14 pages. Reprinted from *Welfare Magazine*, March, 1927.

Tiebout, Harry M., "Child Guidance Clinics," *Religious Education*, XXV (May, 1930), 401-6.

See also the list in the preceding chapter of references which contain case-study reports, and, particularly, M. B. Sayles, *Three Problem Children* (New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency [now Commonwealth Fund], 1924), 146 pages.

¹⁰ Pp. 177-79.

due in part, also, to the failure of parents, teachers, and others to take advantage of sound suggestions regarding treatment. If the Bureau's successes are partly the successes of the parents concerned, it follows that its failures are partly the parents' failures. Whether improvement in the child follows or fails to follow upon the Bureau's efforts depends as much, probably, upon the carrying out by fathers and mothers and other close relatives of plans outlined to them, as upon the soundness of those plans.¹¹

The *Seventh Yearbook* also calls attention to the dangers of superficial attempts to give child-guidance. When a worker or a clinic drops into a community for a short time, sees a large number of children, and tells teachers and parents what to do with them, no lasting results can be expected. Personality cannot be changed over night and only rarely are serious mal-adjustments remedied except after a long and carefully planned course of treatment.

A further word of warning is issued against the worker who lacks thorough training but poses as a "child specialist." One writer has said:

... The mere establishment of a clinic does not guarantee adequate service. In fact, there is a very real danger that with untrained people, the treatment may descend unwittingly to the level of pernicious meddling which is already sufficiently widespread and has produced entirely justifiable adverse criticism. It is to be hoped that as time goes on, there will be available more and more adequately trained people and that the information at their disposal will be more and more scientifically guided.¹²

Guidance specialists are rendering great service to the schools in the care of children. Their techniques are not perfected and there are those who are not even familiar with the

¹¹ Porter R. Lee and Others, *Mental Hygiene and Social Work* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1929), p. 17.

¹² Harry M. Tiebout, "Danger Points in Child Guidance Clinic Work," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, IV (April, 1931), 515-16.

best available techniques. The teacher should find the best available specialists and not be discouraged with partial success. The movement has made rapid strides and will undoubtedly render even greater service in years to come.

MAKING USE OF SPECIALISTS

Teachers are sometimes reluctant to make use of the guidance specialists that are available in their school systems. This attitude may be due to ignorance as to their functions or due to a lack of confidence in their ability to help. At times it seems that the teacher feels humiliated if he must appeal for help in dealing with his children. The same teacher does not hesitate to call upon the school physician if a child needs specialized medical treatment. He should approach the guidance specialists in the same spirit. These specialists do have a contribution to make if the classroom teacher and the principal will co-operate with them.

Few school systems have adequate professional service in this field, and the teacher must look outside of the school organization for needed assistance. Often the teacher will know of the service available in the community or can easily find out about it. At times this service is not well advertised and may not be known. There are ways, however, by which the necessary information can be secured.

The Commonwealth Fund publishes a *Directory of Psychiatric Clinics in the United States*,¹³ which lists all of the state-supported and community clinics. Information regarding these clinics may be secured from this directory or by writing the Commonwealth Fund at 450 Seventh Avenue, New York City. It is of interest that as late as 1920 there were so few clinics that it was not thought worth while to publish a direc-

¹³ Commonwealth Fund, *Directory of Psychiatric Clinics in the United States* (New York: Commonwealth Fund, *Division of Publications*, 1932), 165 pages.

tory. In 1925 the first publication was made with a list of 318 children's clinics. The 1928 edition reported 492 children's clinics in 350 cities and in 36 of the 48 states. The 1932 edition lists 674 clinics for adults and children, of which all but about 50 offer guidance for boys and girls. Some of these clinics care for only a few cases in a year while others count their numbers in the thousands.

In addition to the state and community clinics there are private clinics, psychiatrists, and psychologists that have private practice. Information about these workers may be secured from the following:

American Psychiatric Association, Clarence O. Cheney, M.D., Secretary; 722 West 168th Street, New York.

National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City.

In addition to the sources mentioned, information regarding available facilities may usually be secured from state departments of education, state welfare boards, juvenile court authorities, or local welfare organizations. To be certain that all available resources are discovered it is urged that the three national organizations be corresponded with if state and local authorities are not able to cite any child-guidance facilities.

PART V

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AS RELATED
TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF
CHARACTER

CHAPTER XIX

SIGNIFICANT FACTORS IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

“Co-operative group activity,” “pupil initiative,” “practice in making decisions,” “significant tasks,” “the creative spirit,” “freedom”—these are words which we have considered important in relation to the work of the classroom group. These are words which also have very definite implications for the administration of the school. In relation to the individual guidance of pupils it has been said that the child’s personality is influenced by the multitude of adjustments of the school day, and that these adjustments are most likely to be made in satisfying ways if consideration is given to the varying capacities and needs of pupils, if the school stimulates independence upon the part of the boy or girl rather than greater dependence upon the will of adults, and if a co-operative relationship exists between the individual pupil and the school staff. Oftentimes the administrative policy of the school is such as to offset all the constructive efforts in these directions by classroom teachers and counselors.

The subject of administration in relation to the character emphasis in the school is broad enough to justify an entire volume devoted to its discussion. These matters have been much discussed in recent years, however, and brief paragraphs will serve as a reminder to the reader of some of the factors most significant in relation to the subject of the chapter.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL

Recent years have seen the development of the 6-3-3 plan with its six years of elementary school and three years each of

junior and senior high school; the development of the Dalton plan, the Winnetka plan, and the platoon system; the expansion of the junior college, the kindergarten, and the pre-kindergarten school; and many other fundamental changes in the general organizations of the school and its curriculum. In a few instances these changes have been made because they seemed more economical or efficient, or because they made it easier to attain the traditional goals of education. In almost every instance, however, these fundamental changes have been advocated and justified because they provided an environment more suitable for the growing personality of the child; because they allowed for the differing interests and abilities of children; because they encouraged the development of initiative, responsibility, and social-mindedness, or in other ways contributed to the character outcomes of the school.

Almost any of these plans seem to have their weaknesses and limitations, but the trend is definitely toward forms of organization which provide better opportunities for the development of the personality of the pupil. The total program of the school is undergoing a re-evaluation in terms of character and these plans reflect this process of evaluation. It is not desirable to take over any one plan of administration except in so far as it can be adopted to the needs of the local situation. The administrator and the teacher should familiarize themselves with these experiments and from them gain suggestions as to the best organization for their own school or system of schools.¹

HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING

One of the essentials for the development of character is that the individual child meet situations difficult enough to

¹ Brief discussions of some of these changes in organization as related to character are found in the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Classroom Teachers (National Education Association), pp. 192, 202-3, and in the *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, pp. 301-2.

stimulate growth but situations that are not so difficult that they deny him a fair chance to succeed. If all pupils were alike, this setting could be easily provided, but they are not alike. At any chronological age they differ in mental capacity, in their accumulation of educational experience, in health and vitality, in their degree of physiological maturity, in social experience and adaptability, in emotional characteristics, in their interests, in special abilities, and in many other ways. Wide recognition of the individuality of boys and girls has led to widespread interest in the subject of homogeneous grouping. In actual practice there have been many schemes of grouping ranging from those that have only provided separate classes for mental defectives to those which have classified every child upon the basis of mentality, school achievement, or other factors. More recently interest has arisen in special grouping for the benefit of the superior as well as the inferior boy or girl. There seems to be wide agreement that some type of classification is desirable but much disagreement as to the nature and extent of this grouping.

Two recent yearbooks of the National Education Association have included studies which have summarized current opinion on this subject:

Department of Classroom Teachers, *Seventh Yearbook*. Chapter viii, entitled, "Provisions for Meeting Individual Differences and Their Influence on Character Development."

Department of Superintendence, *Ninth Yearbook*. Particularly chapter vi, entitled, "How Elementary and Secondary Schools Are Meeting the Needs of Individual Pupils."

These two volumes, together with the ample bibliographies included in them, will serve to introduce the teacher or administrator to the varying opinions on this subject and to some of the plans now in operation which are giving to boys and girls an opportunity to develop the peculiar abilities they possess and to develop in proportion to their capacity for growth.

We may set up certain general principles which seem essential considerations for any local administrator.

1. Successful plans for homogeneous grouping require a thorough knowledge of the pupils before classification is made.
2. No single factor (such as the I.Q., for example) should be the basis for grouping since the success of the pupil is dependent upon a complex of factors.
3. Homogeneous grouping must be accompanied by a curriculum suited to the level of each group.
4. Since children differ not only in ability and attainment but in the rate at which they can progress, the curriculum should allow for the proper rate of development for each group.
5. Even after groups are selected carefully there will still be variations in ability and interests within the so-called homogeneous group, which should be considered and which necessitate a large measure of individual attention on the part of the teacher.

Homogeneous grouping is conceded to have certain advantages and certain dangers, as well. In order to determine these advantages and disadvantages, a questionnaire was sent to 500 superintendents of schools who reported their opinions on the matter. Twenty arguments in favor of such classification were given of which the following seem most significant as related to character outcomes.²

1. Slow learners in separate groups are not discouraged by the superiority of others, but compete on more equal terms and develop their own leaders. Grouped together pupils feel freer to admit their slowness and to ask the questions necessary to their better understanding. They do not feel awkward or timid through being conscious of the brighter and faster pupils.
2. Homogeneous grouping places pupils in competition with others of fairly equal ability. It sets a pace that is a real challenge and a standard that is attainable.

² National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Ninth Yearbook*, pp. 122-23.

3. Children having more than average ability tend to form habits of idleness, inattention, and mental laziness if compelled to mark time in classes made up of average and below average pupils. When superior pupils are grouped together activities and discussions are on a higher plane.
4. Competition is keener, pupils are more likely to work up to their capacities—better work results.
5. Homogeneous grouping adds to the happiness of children. The sting of inferiority and failure is removed. Each child is happy achieving in his group and experiencing the joy of success.
6. Homogeneous grouping lessens pupil failure and discouragement and reduces the amount of retardation. The slow pupil is not constantly compared with the bright child.
7. Leaders are developed in all groups. Every homogeneous group, so-called, lacks enough in homogeneity to furnish leaders for the slower portion of the group, without the danger of the leaders getting so far ahead that they cease to function as such.
8. Homogeneous grouping reduces the number of disciplinary problems, by giving pupils work suited to their abilities and a chance to succeed among their equals.
9. Homogeneous grouping usually provides groups which are more congenial socially. It associates together those who may best profit from co-operation and competition.
10. Homogeneous grouping prevents the development of an inferiority complex on the part of the dull.
11. Homogeneous grouping prevents the development of a superiority complex on the part of the bright. It is possible that a better attitude toward his own ability may result if a pupil is matched with his peers.
12. Homogeneous grouping prevents low standards from dominating the whole group.
13. A greater retention of pupils results from homogeneous grouping.

In contrast to these advantages a list of twenty-two disadvantages and dangers were mentioned of which the following seem most pertinent.³

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 124-26.

1. With homogeneous grouping, the slower groups lose the stimulus and the contributions of the brighter pupils.

According to several superintendents of schools this argument is not valid for these reasons: (1) Even when pupils are grouped homogeneously there is still a sufficient range of ability within each group so that the more capable pupils set standards for the less aggressive who need to have their pride awakened to work up to capacity; and (2) the power gained by a certain few of the lower groups who become leaders in their groups fully takes the place of anything they might gain if they were in classes in which brighter pupils are leaders.

2. Pupils put in the lower ability groups sometimes develop a sense of failure and inferiority.
3. Pupils put in the higher ability groups are apt to develop a superiority complex. It may cause bright pupils to underestimate the worth of qualities other than intellect, and thus promote intellectual snobbishness. It prevents brighter children from learning tolerance for those with less intellectual ability.
4. Homogeneous grouping is undemocratic and tends to create class distinctions in the minds of some pupils. Through it there is danger of developing an intellectual caste.
5. With homogeneous grouping, there are no outstanding leaders to inspire the slower groups. The slow child may become discouraged and even slower.
6. A certain stigma is often attached to the lower groups, and they are referred to as "dumb-bells."
7. Grouping on an ability basis frequently results in pupils with poor social background being all grouped together, whereas citizenship improves by association with higher type pupils.
8. The average, or above average pupil, loses the opportunity of helping the dull child.
9. It is difficult to maintain a right attitude on the part of the pupil toward the grouping, particularly in the slow sections. Homogeneous grouping, if not properly handled, causes jealousy and resentment.

10. The poor group accomplishes little because the teacher "knows" they can't do much. Fixed attitudes with respect to intelligence are developed by teachers in dealing with pupils grouped homogeneously—usually to the disadvantage of the low ability groups.
11. Some pupils will deliberately do poor work so as to rate low in tests in order to get into slow groups, as less work is required of them there.
12. Discipline cases usually collect in the low division.

These two lists suggest the complicated factors involved in the determination of a plan of grouping for homogeneity. That some plan of classification is desirable as an aid to the child from the standpoint of academic progress and other phases of development, seems to be the accepted opinion of the vast majority of teachers and of supervisory, research, and administrative officers.

SPECIAL GROUPINGS FOR CHARACTER DEVIATES

Various special classes and special schools have been organized for atypical groups—rooms for mental defectives, sight-saving rooms, rooms for cripples, fresh-air rooms, and the like. Special rooms and special schools have also, in a few instances, been provided for those who have persistent character difficulties. We have in mind such schools as the Montefiore and Mosley schools in Chicago, the Thomas A. Edison School in Cleveland, and the special rooms provided in the Detroit schools. Pupils are taken out of regular classes and buildings because they are a burden upon the teacher and an undesirable influence for fellow-pupils, with the hope that with special guidance in the new group there may be more hope of a satisfactory adjustment. In the curriculum of the special school the primary consideration is character; so this is the major justification for the selection of any unit or activity. The

instructional program is planned with thought of individual needs and an effort made to find some plan of activity which will interest each pupil. Special attention is given to any physical defects or chronic illnesses that may be contributing causes to the delinquency of these pupils. Psychological service is available and in the best of these schools each new pupil is given a careful, individual case study. Home visitation and contact with the community agencies which influence the life of the pupil are considered essential. Some schools are attempting to carry their influence through the summer by the sponsoring of summer camps for delinquents.

These special provisions for delinquents are expensive and seem out of the question for the average community. Perhaps the time is not far away, however, when it will seem more economical to invest more money in preventive activities and less for the support of state and local institutions, for the care of juvenile court cases, and for the care of adult criminals.

STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

Student counsels and other plans for pupil participation in the operation of the school are frequently thought of as one of the "extra-curriculum" activities of the school, but we prefer to think of such as a principle or plan which should be operative as a part of the administrative program of the school. In actual practice there are many types of student government programs. At one extreme we find a type of organization which is merely a tool to help the principal work out his own purposes. It is easy for the principal in a rather domineering manner to get the "Counsel" to agree with his plans, then to go back to the students they represent to secure the co-operation of all. At the other extreme we find a group of children given certain responsibilities and left to plan and execute their plans without adult guidance. While the first extreme may continue because it is efficient from the standpoint of "getting



THE STUDENT COUNCIL AT WORK

things done," the latter plan can only result in confusion and error, and ultimate failure.

Separate from these two types of pupil participation is another which seems to have actual value as a character-forming influence. Some administrators have thought that, since the aim of the school is to develop in the child greater capacity for self-direction and greater skill in meeting the choices of life, there is a teaching value in every opportunity the child has to meet significant problems and to direct his own activities. When the administrator really believes that boys and girls should have a share in the administration of the school, not because they are able to do it as efficiently as teachers and principals, but because in the experience of participation they are going to develop the ability to direct themselves and to direct important activities, then the administrator will find it easy to build up the necessary machinery for such participation.

Certain principles may be given which will be basic to such a plan:

1. The boy or girl is more likely to gain skill in self-direction if the "student government" plan is a co-operative one between pupils and teachers rather than one in which the pupils are left to their own resources. The pupil learns skill in meeting situations as he co-operates with those who are more experienced in meeting them.
2. The personality of the child, and the opinions of the child, must be respected. Merely "talking things over" with pupils is not enough. The teacher must value the opinions of boys and girls and be willing to change his mind if he is wrong.
3. Schemes of miniature government ("city commissions," "legislatures," city councils, etc.) do not give experience in sovereignty unless there are real problems to be met, important decisions to be made, and assurance that the decisions made will be put into operation.

4. Projects of school improvements, plans for school activities, forming of general rules and policies for the school building, seem more within the sphere of the student-teacher government group than the handling of individual disciplinary problems which should be the functions of those qualified to counsel. Many of the plans whereby student counsels become courts to try the cases of boys and girls who are guilty of misdemeanors seem to conflict with all of the principles of individual guidance set forth in chapters xvi, xvii, and xviii of this volume. This does not mean, however, that when there is a wave of discourtesy in school assemblies, for example, that the students should not consider plans for eliminating this problem, but this is different from a handling of the individual problems of John Jones or Mary Smith.
5. The decisions of the counsel of pupils and teachers should be binding upon the teachers and the principal as well as upon the boys and girls.
6. If teachers violate the plans, there should be a machinery for enforcing decisions with regard to teachers as well as with regard to students.
7. Since there is respect for pupil judgment as well as for the judgment of mature teachers, occasionally the judgment of the boys and girls will lead to wrong decisions. This is not to be avoided because children need to observe the failure of their own plans wrongly made as well as the success of their better plans.
8. In schools in which the plan of administration has been autocratic the introduction of democratic policies should be a gradual one but the aim should be to as rapidly as possible enlist the entire student body and the entire faculty in the enterprise and to approach the maximum of co-operative responsibility for the school and its program.⁴

⁴ For the discussion of the principles and practices of schools in student government the reader is referred to:

Coe, George A., *Law and Freedom in the School* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924), 134 pages.

Fretwell, E. K., *Extra-curricular Activities in Secondary Schools* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931), pp. 89-207.

[Footnote continued on following page]

SCHOOL MARKS AND REPORTS

The usual plan for grading and making report of children's progress has been widely condemned because it seems to serve as an artificial stimulus to activity on the part of the pupil. Learning proceeds with the greatest value when the interest of the child is concentrated upon the activity itself rather than upon extrinsic reward or recognition. Furthermore, the over-emphasis upon marks and reports is known to be a positive cause of dishonesty in school work and of the "get-by" attitude which is all too prevalent. This stimulus to dishonesty is greatly increased when there is a feeling that grades are awarded unjustly, but it exists even when the competition is considered to be as free from injustice as the teacher can make it.⁵

Some experiments have been made which have seemed to reduce the emphasis upon the report card and to encourage a more wholesome appreciation of the intrinsic value of school activities. Some schools report work merely as "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory," or perhaps give recognition to those who have done superior work. Some have substituted for the report card, informal letters in which the teacher or teachers

Fretwell, E. K., *Seven Purposes of Pupil Participation in Government*, Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association, Bulletin No. 35 (March, 1931), pp. 108-14.

Germaine, C. E., and Germaine, E. G., *Character Education* (New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1929), Book I, pp. 169-259.

National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Tenth Yearbook*, pp. 237-38.

National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-fifth Yearbook*, Part II, *Extra-curricular Activities* (Bloomington, Ill.: Public Schools Publishing Co., 1926), pp. 127-40.

⁵ For related discussions the reader is referred to chap. v, pp. 110-11, and chap. xv, pp. 267-68, in this volume, and pp. 214-15 in the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Classroom Teachers (National Education Association).

make a report to the parents of the points of difficulty and the points of progress of son or daughter. Efforts have been made to secure the same results without the clerical force necessary for the writing of letters by using a printed form on which items can be checked or statements completed by inserting a few words. These substitutes can never equal in value the informality and the friendliness of the personal letter.

When the teacher must follow the traditional plan of grading, it is still possible to create a more wholesome attitude than is usually found. The first thing for him to do is to use those methods of teaching⁶ and those materials which will create in the boy or girl an inner desire to pursue units of study because they seem interesting and of worth. When grades are given they should be just and accurate, the basis for marking should be understood by all pupils, and, in order to achieve these first two conditions, should as far as possible be determined objectively upon the basis of objective tests or concrete acts of achievement. In the third place, the teacher should avoid overemphasis upon the significance of grades and should not use the threat of a failing grade or the promise of a higher mark as the incentive for greater effort on the part of the boy or girl. Let children be urged to work, if urged they must be, because the thing they are urged to do is worth the doing. Often at the end of a semester, or other marking period, when children are thinking of the grade they have earned, the teacher may help them to review the real accomplishments of the period by a discussion of activities engaged in and progress made.

Great interest has been shown during recent years in citizenship grading, or some form of personality rating used in addition to, or in place of, the academic grade. It would seem that here might be another danger similar to that in the awarding of academic grades. Overemphasis, at least, may cause the

⁶ See chap. v and others in Part I.

child to look outside of the satisfactions of living his daily life and to seek his satisfactions in extrinsic rewards. There is another defect, also, in that the techniques of grading personality are more complicated and less valid, even, than those used for the objective measurement of academic achievement. In this regard it may be said that there is a value in reporting to the pupil and to the parents the actual difficulties of the child and in discussing frankly with them the personality problems of the child. To report to parent, or to son or daughter, the fact that the child habitually wastes time in class, lacks interest in his work, is dishonest in writing examinations, seems unhappy and lacks friends in school, etc., may be the first step in securing an adjustment of difficulties. It should be borne in mind, however, that these concrete acts or characteristics may only be symptoms of some underlying conflict to which attention should be directed.

RECORDS

All plans for the individual guidance of boys and girls, and efforts to adjust instructional activities to their individual needs and abilities, assume a wide knowledge of each member of the student body of the school. It becomes inadequate merely to know the child's age, name of parents, place of residence, and the academic grades which he has been granted from semester to semester. The outline of necessary information becomes like the outline used by a counselor or teacher in the making of a case study. The record should cover a variety of factors in the school history of the child: achievement, apparent causes for failures and successes, peculiar abilities and interests, out-of-class problems, social adjustment at different levels, etc. Records of objective tests of achievement and ability should be included. Significant information about the home, factors which might influence the behavior of the

child, hereditary weaknesses, relationship of the child to other members of the family group, etc., is essential, also information about the community, recreational groups, associates, work experience, and the like. A record of physical condition and health habits should be available. In other words, in these days of large schools and city life, it is very difficult for the teacher to know his pupils as well as he should unless there has been accumulated from time to time a record of information that may be needed in the future.

The possession of such record brings a responsibility to the teacher and a danger, as well. This type of information must always be confidential and never be misused or be made the subject of idle gossip. It must not be judged that because the child has a record of bad home background, or previous anti-social conduct, or mediocre ability, that he isn't worthy of effort on the part of the teacher and that he can only face failure in the future. Elaborate records must be intelligently interpreted and should only be available to teachers as they have need for them and as they appreciate the nature of them and will not misuse or be unwisely prejudiced by them.

DISCIPLINE

Reference has already been made⁷ to the fact that disciplinary practices may often lead to antisocial conduct on the part of the child and do permanent injury to him. Mention can be made of some of these practices that may be hindrances to the development of character:

1. Discipline that refuses to consider the pupil's side of the case.
2. Punishment that is unduly severe.
3. Inconsistencies and impetuosity in handling deeds of misconduct.
4. Too much concern about trivial things.

⁷ P. 110.

5. Too much laxity in enforcement of rules.
6. Punishing a group for the misconduct of one or a few individuals in the group.
7. Bringing the misconduct of one pupil to the attention of others.
8. Personal feelings of resentment on the part of the disciplinarian toward the student.
9. Threats, especially if not lived up to.
10. Making requirements of pupils that are higher than those lived up to by faculty members.
11. The enforcement of rules which seem unnecessary to boys and girls.
12. Partiality shown to particular pupils.
13. The use of unfair methods in proving a student guilty (opening of his locker without permission, tricking to get him to confess, etc.).
14. The unwillingness of the disciplinarian to forget past offenses and the lack of hope of future improvement of the child.

The separation in many schools of the disciplinary functions from the guidance functions has seemed quite unfortunate and illogical. There would seem to be no distinction between a child who needs guidance and one who needs discipline—if it is a problem of importance, in either case it would seem that the child is maladjusted and that he should be given intelligent careful handling. There should be a unification of all functions of this type in order that there may be no duplication of effort, no conflicting influences for the direction of the student, and the maximum of expert service for boys and girls in need of it.

In view of this interpretation of the importance of disciplinary problems, the plan for meeting them becomes a co-operative one of teachers, principals, and guidance experts, as outlined in Part IV of this volume. The methods of handling disciplinary problems are those which have in view the adjustment of the boy or girl, and not his punishment.

PROBLEMS RELATIVE TO THE SELECTION OF THE
TEACHING PERSONNEL⁸

The demands upon the teaching personnel in a modern school are quite different from those of a few years back when the teacher was hired because he knew his subjects and was a good disciplinarian. The teacher of today must be well grounded in the knowledge of child psychology and educational method. Well-organized knowledge of a few things that are to be taught in a particular semester or in a particular course is not enough for the one who would direct the large instructional units which are a co-operative enterprise of teacher and pupils. These demand wide knowledge of many fields of life.

The democratic method of classroom procedure and curriculum-planning demand certain qualities of personality. Responsibility for the individual guidance of pupils, for the supervision of "extra-curriculum" activities, for home and community contacts—each demands special skills and personal qualities. In addition to all this is the responsibility the teacher must fulfil as the personal ideal of boys and girls, since the rapport which develops between the teacher and his pupils in the friendly associations of school activities increases the personal admiration and desire upon the part of the child to imitate his teacher. Little wonder that it is said that better teaching methods and larger "character dividends" can only come with a better supply of teachers.⁹

The writer recently visited an experimental school conducted according to modern methods of teaching and was im-

⁸ See chap. v, p. 108-113. Also pp. 65-69 and 207-9 in the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Classroom Teachers, and pp. 277-90 in the *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence (National Education Association).

⁹ Lists of desirable qualifications for teachers are included in the two *Yearbooks* of the National Education Association—the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Classroom Teachers, pp. 65-69, and the *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, pp. 284-90.

pressed particularly by the high quality of teaching personnel—teachers of unusual teaching ability, wide background of general education and culture, and pleasing personalities. He asked a member of the administrative staff of the school where they had secured such a personnel and he gave the reply: "We pick the best teachers we can, we expect to help them prepare for the job to which they are assigned after they are on the job, and if they don't fulfil our requirements we let them go elsewhere to work." This suggests three problems incident to the teaching personnel—the problem of teacher selection, problems of training teachers in service, and problems related to teachers who cannot make adjustments to the demands of the profession. For the latter of these three problems the author has no suggestions to offer, since this problem must be met in the best way in each school system and in the case of each individual teacher. It seems only fair to say, however, that the obligation of superintendents and boards of education to the pupils in their schools is greater than the obligation to the teacher who cannot adapt himself to the modern plan of education.

Various efforts are being made to improve the quality of teachers coming from our training institutions. They are being introduced to progressive methods, to the knowledge of child psychology and guidance, to the principles of character formation, etc. There are teachers in service who have through the years prepared themselves for the changing opportunities. When selection of teachers is made from among the available applicants, the superintendent who is interested in the character emphasis is going to give major attention to the specific qualifications of the teacher—the specific training, his experience and skill with modern methods of teaching and individual guidance of pupils, the personal qualities and ideals of the teacher. This information is not easy to obtain and cannot be judged, entirely at least, by the number of courses the

prospect has taken in special fields. A few schools have tried to find out the attitude of the applicant through rather carefully planned interviews. Sometimes questionnaires can be used which ask what would be done in meeting certain situations which might arise in the classroom. Where there are special workers in child guidance, they have sometimes been asked to interview all applicants at the same time that they are interviewed by superintendents and supervisor or principal.

After the teacher enters service there must be continual stimulus to growth—a stimulus offered by administrative, supervisory, and research officers as far as these are available, but most surely in all instances the stimulus of an inner desire on the part of the teacher. When a person surveys the new educational movements of the past fifteen or twenty years, he must be impressed with the fact that the next few years will see equal progress in the form of new points of emphasis and the further development of trends already under way. Someone has said that there are two kinds of teachers—those who, as they look back over their period of service, will have had twenty years of experience, and those who will only have had one year's experience twenty times. Teachers of the latter type can offset and block the progress of the entire movement to make the school contribute the maximum to the lives of those who pass through its halls. When, however, the entire school experience of the child is a unified one, with every teacher alert to the best in educational method, with all factors in the environment evaluated from the standpoint of character, then the boy or girl will find it easier to understand the way of life to which the school would introduce him.

PART VI
HOME AND COMMUNITY INFLUENCES

CHAPTER XX

THE CHILD AND HIS TOTAL ENVIRONMENT

Several chapters have been devoted to the educational experience of the child as seen through the eyes of teacher and administrator. We turn now for a few pages to think of the child in relation to the many experiences which together influence the development of his personality.

THE WIDENING SPAN OF EXPERIENCE

The first educational experiences of the boy or girl are very simple ones. Very early in his baby days he learns that certain actions are rewarded with pleasant experiences while others are followed by less pleasant sensations. These pleasant sensations may be in the form of physical comfort, a satisfied appetite, the smile of mother, fondling and caresses from father, and any other of the experiences which bring joy to a baby's heart. The unpleasant sensations that accompany other types of action may consist of physical pain or discomfort, frowns from mother, periods of loneliness when parents let the baby "cry it out," and often more definite forms of disapproval. With each act the infant learns to associate pain or pleasure. Those forms of behavior attended by pleasurable associations are repeated, while those are avoided which bring pain or which lack the satisfactory rewards accompanying other forms of behavior. It is the easiest way of adjustment for the infant and it is the most simple of educational processes.

A three-weeks-old child had to be given a few drops of a medicine with unpleasant taste. The medicine was placed in a

teaspoon and poured on the tongue of the little girl. For the first time in her life the child had contact with a teaspoon and with bitter medicine. Immediately upon tasting the formula the baby jerked her head away. A few minutes later a perfectly clean teaspoon was touched to her lips and again the head was jerked away. The first experience with a teaspoon had been painful and the infant had formed a very unfriendly feeling if not a permanent antipathy toward all such articles. A single experience had determined a lasting attitude. A few minutes later another teaspoon was presented, this time with a few particles of sugar on the top. Even a "three-weeks-old" likes sugar, but when the spoon was presented the response of the baby was as before. The child had been convinced that all spoons were bad and to be avoided. The change from this attitude could only be accomplished by a rather complicated program of education or re-conditioning. The process in this instance was as follows. A particle of sugar was dropped on the tip of the baby's tongue and the spoon touched to her lips for a moment. More sugar was followed by another momentary contact, and still a third and a fourth repetition. Finally the baby arrived at the highly desirable attitude that there are two kinds of teaspoons—those that are bitter and those that are sweet.

In this simple illustration from real life is a typical characteristic of the educational experience of the infant. It takes but a single pleasurable experience (or unpleasurable one) to set the first attitudes and the first conduct patterns, but if these first habits of thought and action must be changed after they are first set, the process is infinitely more complicated.

After a few weeks of the child's life have passed, another type of education begins to take place. The element of imitation enters into the educational experience and we find the boy or girl trying to copy the actions of mother, father, sister, brother, and others with whom he is closely associated. Thus,

if there be harmony in the attitudes and conduct of those with whom the child spends his first year or two, he begins to formulate harmonious and rather permanent behavior patterns. This does not necessarily mean that these patterns are desirable ones but they are consistent with the demands and the practices of the family unit. Therein the child finds harmony and a temporarily satisfying way of life.

If the child remained as a member of the family group and of none other, his education would be a simple one, but his circle of experience soon begins to expand. As soon as the child begins to walk, and in some measure before, he begins to affiliate himself with other social groups. Grandparents come into the picture very early, of course, followed by the neighboring children, visitors in the home, and others. The child is not very old when mother and father begin to ask: "I wonder where he learned that!" and realize that new influences are entering into the educational scheme. At least by the time the boy or girl is two or three years of age there are conflicting forces in his life.

The circle widens gradually until the child enters the kindergarten or nursery group and the parents begin to realize that not only are there conflicting influences in the child's experience but that the home may even be losing its position as the dominant group. The new pupil has become convinced of the extreme importance of the school group of which he has become a member. John comes home, now, with the insistent demand, "I've got to eat spinach—teacher said so!" or "I can't wear that suit anymore—no one else wears that kind to school!" At about the same time the church school enters into the picture with other group loyalties and with its particular standards. Both the public school and the church school are significant molders of personality because they bring the child in touch with children from other parts of the city, with different economic and social experience, and with different habits

and ideals. They are also significant for another reason. Each has a program of organized instruction the purpose of which is to guide pupils into ways of living which are different, in some respects at least, from that to which any of the group has been introduced in his own home and neighborhood.

Not even at the age of six, however, has the life of the child reached its maximum of complexity. Very early in the experience of some there enters the motion picture theater with offerings which are scarcely designed to add to the harmony of the developing pattern of life. Then there is the newspaper with whose front-page headlines the boy or girl is soon familiar. The radio brings its stories—some designed for children, and others not so designed. The boy starts to sell papers and has his first introduction to business ethics as other boys have learned them. There enters in the summer playground group, the Boy Scout or Ranger group, the Campfire Girls, or the 4-H Club.

By the time Johnny or Mary has made a good start in junior high school, at least, he has come in contact with practically every group or influence that is met in adult life. There are only two exceptions of major importance. It is not until senior high school days, perhaps, that "the girl-friend" or "the boy-friend" brings into the life of the adolescent an entirely new train of influences. His new interest is soon strong enough to at times take precedence over all others and ultimately to lead to the forming of a new and dominant group in the life of Johnny or Mary—the new home or family unit.

Almost parallel with the entering of the heterosexual interests enter the work interests with the new ambitions or drives they give to the adolescent, with the struggles and sacrifices they sometimes entail, and with the new adjustments they require when the years of training are completed and the boy or girl steps out to earn his own living.

Thus is the growth from birth to adult life marked by ex-

panding interests and a growing number and an increasing complexity of influences.

THE SIGNIFICANCE TO CHARACTER OF CON-
FLICTING INFLUENCES

The individual never outgrows some of the urges that are dominant during infancy. Through life he tends to repeat those forms of behavior that have brought physical comfort and pleasure, that have won the approval of his associates, that have given a sense of security and achievement in all life's relationships. At the same time the individual tends to avoid those patterns of conduct which have brought physical pain or discomfort, which have robbed him of the feeling of belonging to social groups, that have given a sense of insecurity and failure. Neither does the individual outgrow at any time in his life the tendency to imitate the actions, the ideals, the interests, the attitudes, of those about him.

These urges are not very simple in their operation after the first few weeks of life and grow increasingly confusing with the widening span of life. There is no single pattern of life which brings satisfaction or dissatisfaction, no single pattern of life which the growing child may imitate. Each home represented in the neighborhood play group, the school group and each family represented in it, the church group and its complex of personnel, the movies, the daily newspaper, the radio broadcast, the downtown gang that sells papers, the playground group, the boys' or girls' club, the girl-friend or boy-friend, the vocation and the vocational group—each represents its own standards of life and sets up its own scheme of satisfactions and dissatisfactions. Even within these groups there are conflicts, since father may not agree with mother and neither one of them with grandmother and grandfather, and the school teachers may not agree with one another. Furthermore, the things that father says over the telephone, or in

filling out his income tax report, or when he goes to the club may not agree at all with what he advocates for Johnny. Mary may discover that her mother or teacher is not altogether consistent in what she does when she thinks that Mary is not around.

Honesty is a desirable characteristic when mother asks son to tell the truth but may not be equally desirable to that same mother when an unbidden guest arrives, or to the other paper boy when he has an opportunity to short-change a patron, or to the movie hero when he sees a chance to put over a good business deal or rob a bank. Ambition is a good thing, the teacher says, but Mary urges Johnny to forget his lessons and take her to a party and the boy across the aisle in English class is going to quit high school in time to go fishing when the trout season opens. And so, in thousands of ways, the various influences in the child's life are in conflict, and often the sermon is not in harmony with the life of the one who preaches. No wonder that the child is confused and inconsistent and fails to develop satisfactory ideals and habits of life.

DEVELOPING CHARACTER IN A CONFUSING ENVIRONMENT

There are three methods by which the child may be aided in the effort to find harmony in this inharmonious *mélange*. One of the several groups may become the dominant group so that its satisfactions are sought above the satisfactions of all others, and so the child imitates the actions and the thoughts of the members of this group, even though he may be denied the approval and the fellowship of other conflicting groups. In most instances, at least it would seem that this desire to dominate is an ideal of each group with which the child comes in contact. The home hopes its way of life will dominate all others; the school has similar hopes; the church, the gang, the work group—each feels its way to be the best

and hopes the growing individual will conform to its pattern. As long as so many groups seek to dominate, it is hardly possible (even if it should be considered desirable) that the boy or girl shall select one loyalty and cleave to it unswervingly without consideration for the claims of all others.

It would seem to be a more excellent way if the child might learn, in the midst of the complicated scene, to guide his own way and to exercise an intelligent criticism with regard to the conflicting ways. Rather than to accept any one group as dominant, let him dominate his own life. After considering the various ways in which others have met the situations of life, let him learn to discover or to plan a way of living "which conserves and produces as many values as possible for as many persons as possible over as long a time as possible." This has been considered in this volume as the aim which the school should have in mind as it attempts to guide the growing boy or girl. The same aim should motivate the home, the church, and all other agencies and individuals that seek to mold the growing personalities of children and adolescents.

That such an ideal does not motivate certain important educational agencies is well known to all. The motion picture theater, the newspaper, the radio, the street gang, and certain other influences do not claim any such purpose. Even the home, the church, and the school often fall far short of it. A very serious question arises for the teacher or administrator who sincerely desires to guide his pupils into a better way of life but finds his efforts thwarted by the conflicting influences in home and community. Is there any way by which the conflicts in this environment may be simplified in order that the boy or girl may progress along the path of intelligent self-guidance without feeling that he is opposed by such a multitude of antagonistic forces? Furthermore, is there any method by which the early forces in the child's life may be so modified that the pattern may not be set in undesirable lines before he

comes within the scope of the school? In answer to these questions certain steps have been taken and certain movements started, which are but beginnings, but they suggest the way for future efforts.

MOVEMENTS TO SIMPLIFY THE COMPLEX ENVIRONMENT OF THE CHILD

Among the movements which have developed in order that the environment of the child may present less of conflict and open up more of opportunity for wholesome character development, several have promised significant results. Some of these will be briefly mentioned.

Parent Education

In spite of recent changes in the home, of which sociologists have had much to say, the family group still seems to determine more in the life of the child than any other one agency. This is partly due to its being the first influence in the life of the child, and also due to the fact that it usually provides the longest period of influence and the closest intimacies. It is for the reasons just stated and because parents realize that a knowledge of child psychology and the principles of child guidance is necessary to the father and mother, that child-study clubs, classes for parents, P.T.A. programs of an educational nature, books and periodicals prepared for parents and other related innovations have become popular. These services have in many instances been most appreciated by parents after their children have passed the most crucial years, but the interest has been shared by the mothers and fathers of infants and expectant mothers, and is even penetrating the curriculum of high schools and colleges.

Movements for Public Recreations

Because the leisure-time interests of children are so significant, and the play group is a dominant one, many efforts

to provide desirable recreations have been made. Playgrounds, gymnasiums, city recreation departments, summer camps, school and church recreation programs, clubs for boys and girls—all are an answer to this need.

Improvement of Commercialized Recreations

Commercialized recreations, organized solely for profit, have violated flagrantly the character values. There have been movements to censor and control these recreations, both locally and by national organizations which can deal with such large interests as the motion picture producers' industry. Some have thought it better to set up substitute attractions, as mentioned in the preceding paragraph. Others have thought to co-operate with the commercial interests by informing the public of desirable offerings, by the sponsoring of special motion pictures shows for children, and the like.

An Educational Emphasis in the Church

A shift of emphasis in the church from the evangelistic to the educational has brought a new consciousness of the place of the church in the total educational picture of the child. The boy or girl has received consideration in the program of the church, in the construction of new buildings, and often in the providing of a professionally trained leadership for educational activities. Very significant co-operative movements of the church and school have developed in some communities, particularly the week-day church-school programs with which the reader will be familiar.

Co-operation of All Agencies Interested in Delinquency

Local movements to co-ordinate the efforts of school, church, juvenile court, and welfare agencies interested in the problems of the maladjusted child have been organized. The purpose of such formal or informal organizations has been to more efficiently offer guidance to maladjusted children. Some-

times the aim has been to co-operate, with the additional purpose of giving battle to some of the forces that seem to be contributing to the delinquency problems of the community.

The Arousing of Public Opinion

The arousing of public appreciation for factors in the community which are detrimental to child life is often helpful in improving certain conditions. Luncheon clubs, women's clubs, churches, newspapers, and parent-teacher groups have often been the avenues for the stimulation of public interest and understanding.

Elimination of the Social Causes

Because maladjustment and delinquency are so often associated with social and economic ills, efforts to relieve these ills are movements toward finer character. The relief of unemployment and poverty, the improvement of living and working conditions, the elimination of child labor, the improvement of the law-enforcement machinery, the limitation of reproduction among the unfit—all these are movements toward better character, because poverty, poor living conditions, poor police and court officers, weak heredity, etc., are the enemies of the character emphasis in education.

IN CONCLUSION

We would not discourage the reader by the implications of this last chapter. It must be obvious to all engaged in educational activities that the processes of child development and of education are complicated. Into the experience of the growing child the school may pour certain enriching and guiding influences. But, when the school has given to the boy or girl all it can give through its program of educational activities, it must be aware that it is but one of many influences and that its efforts may be partially or completely offset by conflicting forces, unless there is a co-ordination of effort and a

harmony of purpose. For this reason there must be present in the teacher, the principal, the supervisor, and the superintendent a desire to throw his or her influence and ability into the total of community life and to make his maximum contribution to all movements which are for the betterment of child life.

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The Bibliography is arranged alphabetically according to the problems discussed. Thus, the first section gives, first, the references for "Anger and Temper Tantrums"; second, those for "Bed-wetting or Enuresis"; third, those for "Cheating on Examinations and Other Forms of Deception"; etc. The complete references, including publisher and date of publication, may be found in an alphabetically arranged list at the end of this section.

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THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp. 84-103.

3. *Cheating on Examinations and Other Forms of Deception*

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HARTSHORNE, HUGH, and MAY, M. A., *Studies in Deceit*. See especially chap. xxii of Book I, pp. 391-401.

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4. *Concentration of Attention, Poor*

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THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp. 299-300.

5. *Cruelty and Teasing*²

ADLER, ALFRED, *Understanding Human Nature*, pp. 221-23.

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VAN WATERS, MIRIAM, *Youth in Conflict*, pp. 37-42.

6. *Daydreaming*

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pp. 225-40.

———, *Wholesome Childhood*, pp. 150-57.

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45, 608-9.

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104.

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pp. 302-7, 317-20.

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51-55.

7. *Destructiveness of the Property of Others*

BLATZ, W. E., and BOTT, HELEN, *The Management of Young
Children*, pp. 112-29.

HEALY, WILLIAM, *Honesty*, pp. 16-19.

O'SHEA, M. V., *Newer Ways with Children*, pp. 234-37.

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THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp.
182-92.

8. *Discourteousness*

AVERILL, L. A., *The Hygiene of Instruction*, pp. 206-7.

GRUENBERG, S. M., *Sons and Daughters*, pp. 285-88.

² See also "Jealousy," p. 387, and "Inferiority Feelings," p. 386.

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STARK, W. E., *Every Teacher's Problems*, pp. 45-51.

9. *Disobedience; revolt against authority; "Incorrigibility"*

ARLITT, A. H., *The Child from One to Twelve*, pp. 1-38.

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SWIFT, E. J., *The Psychology of Youth*, pp. 173-213.

10. *Disturbance in Classroom; Petty Annoyances*³

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SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 280-93.

———, *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 40-56.

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³ See also "Concentration of Attention, Poor," p. 382, "Disobedience," above, and other related headings.

11. *Failure, The Habit of*

BURNHAM, W. H., *The Wholesome Personality*, pp. 407-34.

12. *Fears, Anxieties, Worries, Feelings of Insecurity*⁴

ARLITT, A. H., *The Child from One to Twelve*, pp. 103-18.

BLANTON, SMILEY, AND BLANTON, M. G., *Child Guidance*, pp. 158-63 (fear of death).

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———, *The Wholesome Personality*, pp. 291-329.

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———, *The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child*, pp. 205-33.

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———, *The Modern Parent*, pp. 151-67.

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WICKES, F. G., *The Inner World of Childhood*, pp. 218-60.

⁴ See also "Inferiority Feelings," p. 386.

13. *Fighting and Quarreling*ARLITT, A. H., *The Child from One to Twelve*, pp. 99-102.BLANCHARD, PHYLLIS, *The Child and Society*, pp. 283-86.GROVES, E. R., and GROVES, G. H., *Wholesome Parenthood*, pp. 132-34.GRUENBERG, B. C., *Guidance of Childhood and Youth*, pp. 106-15.GRUENBERG, S. M., *Sons and Daughters*, pp. 127-34, 143-48.O'SHEA, M. V., *Newer Ways with Children*, pp. 129-38.RICHARDSON, F. H., *The Nervous Child and His Parents*, pp. 95-104.STARK, W. E., *Every Teacher's Problems*, pp. 42-45.14. *Gangs*⁵15. *Illness, Personality Problems Due to*THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp. 207-19.16. *Inferiority Feelings*ADLER, ALFRED, *Understanding Human Nature*, pp. 223-26.GROVES, E. R., *Personality and Social Adjustment*, pp. 218-30.GROVES, E. R., and GROVES, G. H., *Wholesome Parenthood*, pp. 194-212.INSKEEP, A. D., *Child Adjustment*, pp. 368-78.MATEER, FLORENCE, *Just Normal Children*, pp. 180-83.MORGAN, J. J. B., *The Psychology of Abnormal People*, pp. 538-47, 612.———, *The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child*, pp. 150-67.SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 280-93.———, *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 67-113.THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp. 193-206.17. *Initiative in Work, Lack of. Inability To Work without Continuous Supervision. Irresponsibility*AVERILL, L. A., *The Hygiene of Instruction*, pp. 192-97.BURNHAM, W. H., *The Wholesome Personality*, pp. 407-34.⁵ See "Friendships, Problems of," p. 397, in the list of "Problems of Pupils of Secondary Schools."

- GRUENBERG, S. M., *Sons and Daughters*, pp. 159-63.
 MYERS, G. C., *The Modern Parent*, pp. 277-90.
 O'SHEA, M. V., *Newer Ways with Children*, pp. 175-79.
 SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 30-35.
 ZACHRY, C. B., *Personality Adjustments of School Children*, pp. 184-212.

18. *Interest in School Work, Lack of*

- AVERILL, L. A., *The Hygiene of Instruction*, pp. 185-90.
 MORGAN, J. J. B., *The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child*, pp. 101-3, 291.
 O'SHEA, M. V., *Newer Ways with Children*, pp. 197-201.
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 ———, *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 30-35, 117-22.
 STARK, W. E., *Every Teacher's Problems*, pp. 32-34.
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19. *Jealousy and Envy*

- ADLER, ALFRED, *Understanding Human Nature*, pp. 221-26.
 AVERILL, L. A., *The Hygiene of Instruction*, pp. 209-13.
 MYERS, G. C., *Developing Personality in the Child at School*, pp. 222-29.
 ———, *The Modern Parent*, pp. 190-221.
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 RICHARDSON, F. H., *The Nervous Child and His Parents*, pp. 49-59.
 SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 65-81.
 THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp. 168-81.

20. *Laziness*⁶

- AVERILL, L. A., *The Hygiene of Instruction*, pp. 198-203.
 MATEER, FLORENCE, *Just Normal Children*, pp. 72-83.
 O'SHEA, M. V., *Newer Ways with Children*, pp. 164-69.
 SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 133-40.
 ———, *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 117-22.

⁶ See also "Initiative in Work, Lack of," p. 386, and "Wasting of Time," p. 394.

21. *Lying*

ARLITT, A. H., *The Child from One to Twelve*, pp. 132-46.

BLANTON, SMILEY, and BLANTON, M. G., *Child Guidance*, pp. 266-72.

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———, *The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child*, pp. 171-77.

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RICHARDSON F. H., *The Nervous Child and His Parents*, pp. 231-44.

SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 242-61.

———, *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 143-206.

STARK, W. E., *Every Teacher's Problems*, pp. 67-69.

STRANG, RUTH, *An Introduction to Child Study*, pp. 313-16.

THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp. 248-56.

22. "Nervousness." *General Lack of Emotional Control. Instability*

BLANTON, SMILEY, and BLANTON, M. G., *Child Guidance*, pp. 212-24 (general discussion).

CAMERON, H. C., *The Nervous Child*, pp. 81-89 (sleeplessness), 90-112 (tics, such as nail-biting, peculiar facial movements, pulling ears or hair, etc.), 157-98 (general discussion).

INSKEEP, A. D., *Child Adjustment*, pp. 382-84 (general discussion).

- MATEER, FLORENCE, *Just Normal Children*, pp. 26-44 (sleeplessness), 133-56 (general lack of emotional control).
- RICHARDSON, F. H., *The Nervous Child and His Parents*, pp. 5-26, 269-385 (general discussion), 107-14 (sleeplessness), 161-68 (thumb-sucking), 171-79 (nail-biting), 213-21 (peculiar body movements).
- SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 280-93 (general discussion).
- STRANG, RUTH, *An Introduction to Child Study*, pp. 305-11.
- SWIFT, E. J., *The Psychology of Childhood*, pp. 306-20 (general discussion).
- THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp. 104-15 (thumb-sucking and nail-biting).
23. *Parents, Conflicts with.⁷ Lack of Appreciation for Parents and the Tendency To Make Unreasonable Demands upon Them*
- GROVES, E. R., and GROVES, G. H., *Wholesome Parenthood*, pp. 241-57.
- Intelligent Parenthood*, pp. 195-205.
- MYERS, G. C., *The Modern Parent*, pp. 222-50, 264-76, 340-50.
- VAN WATERS, MIRIAM, *Parents on Probation*, pp. 27-30, 57-99
- WHITE, W. A., *The Mental Hygiene of Childhood*, pp. 133-51.
24. *Parents, Fixation of Child Interest in One or Both*
- Intelligent Parenthood*, pp. 195-205.
- SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 28-40.
- VAN WATERS, MIRIAM, *Parents on Probation*, pp. 84-85.
- WATSON, J. B., and WATSON, R. A., *Psychological Care of Infant and Child*, pp. 69-87.
- WHITE, W. A., *The Mental Hygiene of Childhood*, pp. 135-39, 146-48.
25. *Purposefulness, Lack of Ambition or*
- GRUENBERG, B. C., *Guidance of Childhood and Youth*, pp. 83-94.
- ⁷ An excellent discussion of the problems that arise when parents dominate the child and set his ideals for him will be found in M. B. Sayles, *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 41-64.

26. *Quarreling*⁸27. *Racial Antagonism*

LASKER, BRUNO, *Race Attitudes in Children*, pp. 261-338.

28. *Respect for the Rights of Others, Lack of*

ADLER, ALFRED, *Understanding Human Nature*, pp. 191-220.

MATEER, FLORENCE, *Just Normal Children*, pp. 177-80.

29. *Running Away from Home and School. Truancy*

BLATZ, W. E., and BOTT, HELEN, *Management of Young Children*, pp. 143-47.

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RICHARDSON, F. H., *The Nervous Child and His Parents*, pp. 261-66.

SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 35-40.

STARK, W. E., *Every Teacher's Problems*, pp. 30-32.

THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp. 256-61.

VAN WATERS, MIRIAM, *Youth in Conflict*, pp. 90-99.

30. *Self-confidence, Lack of*

BURNHAM, W. H., *The Wholesome Personality*, pp. 407-34.

31. *Selfishness or Self-Centeredness*⁹

MYERS, G. C., *The Modern Parent*, pp. 264-76.

O'SHEA, M. V., *Newer Ways with Children*, pp. 230-33.

STARK, W. E., *Every Teacher's Problems*, pp. 41-42.

THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp. 177-81.

32. *Sex Difficulties*

ADLER, ALFRED, *Guiding the Child on the Principles of Individual Psychology*, pp. 166-82.

⁸ See "Fighting and Quarreling," p. 386.

⁹ See also "Respect for Rights of Others, Lack of," above.

BLANTON, SMILEY, and BLANTON, M. G., *Child Guidance*, pp. 139-58.

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GROVES, E. R., *Personality and Social Adjustment*, pp. 118-31.

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———, *The Nervous Child and His Parents*, pp. 147-58.

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———, *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 209, 210, 217, 230, 243-50.

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WATSON, J. B., and WATSON, R. A., *Psychological Care of Infant and Child*, pp. 152-83.

WICKES, F. G., *The Inner World of Childhood*, pp. 261-304.

33. "Showing Off" To Attract Attention

ADLER, ALFRED, *Understanding Human Nature*, pp. 191-220.

AVERILL, L. A., *The Hygiene of Instruction*, pp. 185-90.

GROVES, E. R., *Personality and Social Adjustment*, pp. 218-30.

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———, *The Psychology of Abnormal People*, pp. 538-47, 610-12.

SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 67-78.

34. Stealing

BLANTON, SMILEY, and BLANTON, M. G., *Child Guidance*, pp. 272-78.

GROVES, E. R., and GROVES, G. H., *Wholesome Parenthood*, pp. 190-91.

HEALY, WILLIAM, *Honesty*.

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O'SHEA, M. V., *Newer Ways with Children*, pp. 238-41.

RICHARDSON, F. H., *The Nervous Child and His Parents*, pp. 247-57.

SAYLES, M. D., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 209-61.

———, *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 171-95.

STRANG, RUTH, *An Introduction to Child Study*, pp. 449-54.

THOM, D. A., *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*, pp. 231-48.

35. *Stubbornness or Obstinacy*

ADLER, ALFRED, *Understanding Human Nature*, pp. 221-23.

AVERILL, L. A., *The Hygiene of Instruction*, pp. 213-16.

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———, *Wholesome Childhood*, pp. 120-22.

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MYERS, G. C., *The Modern Parent*, pp. 176-84.

O'SHEA, M. V., *Newer Ways with Children*, pp. 157-63.

SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 133-40.

STRANG, RUTH, *An Introduction to Child Study*, pp. 128-30.

36. *Submissiveness. Inability To Take One's Own Part*

MARTIN, L. J., and DE GRUCHY, CLARE, *Mental Training for the Preschool Age Child*, pp. 59-66.

MATEER, FLORENCE, *Just Normal Children*, pp. 177-80.

O'SHEA, M. V., *Newer Ways with Children*, pp. 206-9.

37. *Superiority Feelings. The "Smart-Alec"*¹⁰

ADLER, ALFRED, *Understanding Human Nature*, pp. 191-220.

GROVES, E. R., *Personality and Social Adjustment*, pp. 221-22.

38. *Tattling*

AVERILL, L. A., *The Hygiene of Instruction*, pp. 204-6.

MYERS, G. C., *Developing Personality in the Child at School*, pp. 71-80.

———, *The Modern Parent*, pp. 96-98.

39. *Thriftiness, Lack of. Lack of Appreciation for Money and Inability To Use It Wisely*

ARLITT, A. H., *The Child from One to Twelve*, pp. 174-85.

GROVES, E. R., and GROVES, G. H., *Wholesome Parenthood*, pp. 175-93.

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———, *Your Child Today and Tomorrow*, pp. 116-31.

MYERS, G. C., *The Modern Parent*, pp. 142-47.

40. *Truancy*¹¹41. *Unhappiness and Emotional Depression.*

ADLER, ALFRED, *Understanding Human Nature*, pp. 233-48.

42. *Unsocialized. Withdrawal from the Social Group. Loneliness*

ADLER, ALFRED, *Understanding Human Nature*, pp. 233-48.

BLANTON, SMILEY, and BLANTON, M. G., *Child Guidance*, pp. 164-81.

MATEER, FLORENCE, *Just Normal Children*, pp. 177-80.

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SAYLES, M. P., *The Problem Child in School*, pp. 16-50.

¹⁰ See also "Showing Off To Attract Attention," p. 391, and "Inferiority Feelings," p. 386.

¹¹ See "Running Away from School and Home," p. 390.

43. *Wasting of Time. Slowness in Getting Work Done. Dawdling*
GRUENBERG, S. M., *Sons and Daughters*, pp. 215-18.

PROBLEMS OF PUPILS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. *Anger and Temper Tantrums*¹²

SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 305-29.

2. *Boy-Girl Friendship, Problems of*¹³

BOORMAN, W. R., *Personality in Its Teens*, pp. 147-67.

ELLIOTT, G. L., *Understanding the Adolescent Girl*, pp. 48-54,
93-94.

HOLLINGWORTH, L. S., *The Psychology of the Adolescent*, pp.
105-23, 146-47.

3. *Cheating on Examinations and Other Forms of Deception*

HARTSHORNE, HUGH, and MAY, M. A., *Studies in Deceit*. See
especially chap. xxii of Book I, pp. 391-401.

STARK, W. E., *Every Teacher's Problems*, pp. 67-69.

THOM, D. A., *Normal Youth and Its Everyday Problems*, pp.
234-39.

4. *Clothes, Too Much Interest in Finery and*

BLANCHARD, PHYLLIS, *The Adolescent Girl*, pp. 49-51.

ELLIOTT, G. L., *Understanding the Adolescent Girl*, pp. 108-9.

HOLLINGWORTH, L. S., *The Psychology of the Adolescent*, pp.
112-14, 123.

MORGAN, J. J. B., *The Psychology of the Unadjusted School
Child*, pp. 139-42.

MYERS, G. C., *The Modern Parent*, p. 270.

5. *Concentration of Attention, Poor*

ELLIOTT, G. L., *Understanding the Adolescent Girl*, pp. 83-85.

O'SHEA, M. V., *Newer Ways with Children*, pp. 374-78.

¹² See the same heading in the list for elementary children.

¹³ See also "Sex Difficulties," p. 400, and "Friendships, Problems of,"
p. 397.

6. *Confusion as to the Standards of Right and Wrong Conduct*ELLIOTT, G. L., *Understanding the Adolescent Girl*, pp. 98-103.GROVES, E. R., *Personality and Social Adjustment*, pp. 250-71.7. *Daydreaming*BLANCHARD, PHYLLIS, *The Child and Society*, pp. 235-37.ELLIOTT, G. L., *Understanding the Adolescent Girl*, pp. 81-83.GREEN, G. H., *Psychoanalysis in the Classroom*, pp. 11-78.GROVES, E. R., *Personality and Social Adjustment*, pp. 231-49.GROVES, E. R., and GROVES, G. H., *Wholesome Parenthood*, pp. 225-40, 279-81.GRUENBERG, B. C., *Guidance of Childhood and Youth*, pp. 63-65, 68-72.HOLLINGWORTH, L. S., *The Psychology of the Adolescent*, pp. 190-201.MORGAN, J. J. B., *The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child*, pp. 89-104.———, *The Psychology of Abnormal People*, pp. 544-45, 608-9.SAYLES, M. B., *The Problem Child at Home*, pp. 294-304.THOM, D. A., *Normal Youth and Its Everyday Problems*, pp. 200-213.VAN WATERS, MIRIAM, *Parents on Probation*, pp. 200-203.8. *Destructiveness of the Property of Others*HEALY, WILLIAM, *Honesty*, pp. 16-19.STARK, W. E., *Every Teacher's Problems*, pp. 57-60.9. *Discourteousness*STARK, W. E., *Every Teacher's Problems*, pp. 45-51.10. *Disobedience, Disrespect or Rebellion against Authority. Lawlessness*BLANTON, SMILEY, and BLANTON, M. G., *Child Guidance*, pp. 182-211.ELLIOTT, G. L., *Understanding the Adolescent Girl*, pp. 98-103, 122-25.GRUENBERG, B. C., *Guidance of Childhood and Youth*, pp. 1-16.

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